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ABSTRACT

This report reviews and discusses the results of an extensive year-long study of school discipline in Western Australian secondary schools. Through its investigation, the committee attempted to determine the nature and extent of disciplinary problems, to ascertain the factors contributing to these disciplinary problems, and to recommend measures for their resolution. Data for the study was compiled from case study reports on 73 "extremely deviant" students and from four separate questionnaires that were distributed to all secondary school teachers in Western Australia, administrators at all secondary schools in Western Australia, a randomly selected sample of secondary students, and a random sample of secondary students' parents. Detailed data from the case study reports and questionnaire responses are presented in numerous tables and graphs throughout the report, and a sample of each of the survey forms is included in the Appendix. (JG)

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DISCIPLINE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN
WESTERN AUSTRALIA

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DISCIPLINE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN
WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Report of the Committee enquiring into discipline in
secondary schools in Western Australia under
the chairmanship of Mr H. W. Dettman,
Perth, December, 1972.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN AUSTRALIA

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

The Hon. T. D. Evans, M.L.A.,
Minister for Education,
11th Floor,
Superannuation Building,
32 St. George's Terrace,
Perth, W.A. 6000.

Dear Mr Evans,

I am pleased to present to you a report on discipline in secondary schools in Western Australia.

In December, 1971, in response to concern expressed by the Executive of the State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia over what they viewed to be a deterioration of standards of discipline in secondary schools in this State, I set up a committee to investigate and report upon the nature and extent of indiscipline in secondary schools and to suggest measures for its improvement. This committee which came to be known as the Government Secondary Schools Discipline Committee, met under my chairmanship and included members from the Western Australian State School Teachers' Union, the Western Australian Federation of Parents and Citizens' Associations, the Principal Mistresses' Association, the Western Australian Principals' Association and the Education Department.

The terms of reference which I set down to guide the Committee's investigations and which were agreed to by all members at the first meeting of the Committee were:

> To determine the nature and extent of disciplinary problems occurring in Government secondary schools in Western Australia.
>
> To ascertain factors contributing to these disciplinary problems.
>
> To recommend measures for their resolution.

The Committee has met on fifteen occasions since our inaugural meeting on 14 January 1972. We have received written submissions from interested individuals and organizations and have commissioned four major research projects to ascertain the views of parents, students, teachers and administrators. In addition, numerous case studies have been examined. This report reviews the results of these studies and evidence and opinion gained from a wide variety of sources. It contains our agreed views on matters affecting discipline and recommendations for your consideration.

If implemented, we believe that the recommendations of the report will lead to a climate in schools more conducive to better student learning and development and one in which teachers and administrators may find greater professional satisfaction.

I would like to express my gratitude to the members of the Committee for the willingness with which they have undertaken their task and for the valuable contribution they have made.

Yours sincerely,

H W Dettman

(H. W. DETTMAN)
Chairman.

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE ENQUIRING INTO DISCIPLINE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1972

Mr H. W. Dettman, M.A. (W.A.), F.A.C.E., Director-General of Education (*Chairman*).

Mr J. H. Barton, B.Sc., Dip.Ed., M.A.C.E., Deputy Director-General of Education.

Mr F. R. Evans, B.Ed., B.A., President, State School Teachers' Union of W.A.

Mr R. Darragh, General Secretary, State School Teachers' Union of W.A.

Mr C. Fitzpatrick, B.Sc., B.Ed., Superintendent of Secondary Education.

Mrs J. Green, B.A., Dip.Ed., Principal Mistresses' Association.

Mr H. P. Jensen, President, Parents and Citizens' Federation of Western Australia.

Mr A. Jones, B.Ed., B.A., M.A.C.E., Principals' Association.

Mr K. Lockhart, M.I.D. (Aust.), M.A.I.W., Secretary, Parents and Citizens' Federation of Western Australia.

Mr H. N. Louden, B.Sc., B.Ed., M.A.C.E., Deputy Director of Secondary Education.

Dr D. Mossenson, M.A., B.Ed., Ph.D., M.A.C.E., Director of Secondary Education.

Mr J. Nolan, B.Sc., Dip.Ed., Executive, State School Teachers' Union of W.A.

Mr W. Streat, B.A., Dip.Ed., Executive, State School Teachers' Union of W.A.

Mr G. Watkins, B.Ed., B.A., M.A.C.E., Principals' Association.

Mrs J. Wheeldon, B.Sc. (Wisc.), P.B.K., P.T.L., Executive, State School Teachers' Union of W.A.

Dr A. N. Stewart, M.Ed., Ph.D. (Alberta), B.A., Dip.Ed. (W.A.), M.A.C.E. (*Secretary*).

Miss M. Wombwell (*Assistant Secretary*).

Mr M. Angus, B.A., B.Ed. (*Research Officer*).

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The Committee is also appreciative of the co-operation of administrators, teachers, students and parents in the gathering of data for this report.

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SYNOPSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most of the problems faced by teachers in Western Australian high schools are essentially similar to those faced by their predecessors in earlier decades. There would appear, however, to be emerging a new dimension in high school student behaviour. To the problems of behaviour that have always been associated with adolescence has been added a tendency to question the authority of the teacher. This undoubtedly reflects a tendency in society generally to question social order and authority.

Problems of student indiscipline have been evident in schools from the very beginning of formal education and it would be unreasonable to assume, particularly in an era of mass education, that they could ever be wholly eradicated. Traditionally acts of indiscipline have tended to be controlled through the use of such negative sanctions as corporal punishment, retention, suspension, and a variety of minor deprivations of liberty.

The Committee considers the achievement of optimum levels of student behaviour may better be realized through the development of a school environment which makes schooling much more attractive to students, which reflects a more deliberate and enlightened attempt to enhance their welfare and which allows them to have some measure of choice and control over the educational experiences they may obtain. To accomplish this, attention will need to be given to the total school environment and to its relationships with the wider society.

The development of a positive approach calls for careful attention to learning experiences to see that they match student needs, aspirations and abilities. It also entails providing opportunities for students to participate co-operatively with teachers in the decision-making processes of the school; giving guidance in physical, social and emotional development through such persons as social workers, guidance officers and medical practitioners; and providing, at administrative and teaching levels, instructional leadership that is competent, understanding, and responsive to individual and group needs. Of special concern is the need to develop within schools schemes of pastoral care and measures which will help combat the impersonality which often pervades large organizations.

The importance of the home in the development of positive attitudes towards school cannot be overstressed. The need to establish effective communication between school and home and to seek a greater involvement of parents in some of the decision-making processes and in some aspects of the operation of the school is seen as a desirable measure towards the establishment of better student adjustment within the school.

Despite all efforts by the school, there may still exist the problem of the extremely disruptive student who fails to respond to the application of positive inducements to conform. In this case, the use of negative sanctions may need to be invoked in the interests of effective teaching and learning. In these extreme cases, it will be necessary to give to the principal powers of suspension to cope with any emergency that may threaten the good order of his school and the welfare of teachers and students.

In the light of general educational principles accepted by the Committee and the application of these to the large body of evidence placed before it, the following recommendations are made.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 5. Education Regulations Relating to Discipline

1. Students should have access to a statement of school rules. These rules should be formulated in accordance with definite educational principles and should reflect policies with respect to behaviour both inside and outside the classroom. (p. 69)

2. School councils consisting of administrators, staff, students and parents should be established in all secondary schools to allow annual involvement in the formation, implementation and revision of school rules. (p. 74)

3. Secondary school principals should establish written and oral procedures to acquaint all students with school rules and policies at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter. (p. 75)

4.1 Secondary schools should provide all students with information booklets containing details of school operation, administration and organization at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter. These booklets should contain, in addition to student information, explanations to inform parents of school procedures and requirements.

4.2 These information booklets should contain copies of school rules together with the reasons for their establishment.

4.3 Information booklets should contain information specifically directed to parents. This should include statements regarding school expectations with regard to dress, appearance and behaviour; matters regarding parent-school communication and co-operation; information relating to course selection and curriculum content; and policy with regard to the parents' role in the educative process. (p. 77)

5. The Education Department should adopt measures to ensure that school administrators are adequately informed on the nature and extent of their legal powers and duties (p. 85)

6. Where a student attending a secondary school continuously misbehaves, the principal should invite the parents to discuss the student's future in the school. (p. 93)

7.1 The principal of a secondary school should be empowered to suspend from school for a period of up to five days a student who is guilty of a serious breach of school discipline.

7.2 In the case of suspension for serious breaches of school discipline, the parents of the student should be notified immediately and requested to visit the school to discuss the problem. In the case of oral notification, written notification must follow immediately.

7.3 No suspension exceeding five school days should be made without the approval of the Director-General of Education. (p. 93)

Chapter 7. Punishment

8.1 The Education Department should plan for and provide the necessary guidance, welfare and other ancillary staff to make possible the phasing out of corporal punishment in Western Australian high schools in the shortest possible time.

8.2 During the phasing out of corporal punishment, schools should resort to that type of sanction only when other means have demonstrably failed to remedy undesirable behaviour, and principals should exercise caution in delegating to teachers other than deputy principals authority to administer corporal punishment.

8.3 No later than 1975, the Education Department should set up a committee to review progress made in abolishing corporal punishment and to examine the possibility of setting a definite date for its complete abolition.

8.4 The Education Department should extend the principle of phasing out corporal punishment to primary schools. (p. 161)

9. Regulation 29 should be amended to provide for students to be detained during the lunch recess with the proviso that the period of detention must not exceed one-half of that period (p. 161)

Chapter 8. The Severely Deviant Student

10.1 The Education Department should examine measures for remedying discipline problems by providing facilities within the school to which extremely deviant students may be withdrawn for special supervision and counselling (p. 170)

10.2 The Education Department should take steps to effect an extension of the work of guidance officers and an increased frequency of medical examinations. These could give particular emphasis to the identification and modification of specific learning difficulties and to extremely maladaptive behaviour among children in primary and secondary schools. (p. 171)

Chapter 9. The School and its Organization

11. The Education Department should give every encouragement to the development within secondary schools of administrative schemes designed to foster the pastoral care of students. (p. 194)

12. The Education Department should encourage administrative decentralization ("schools within schools") within large secondary schools to provide for a greater measure of student/administrator contact and to assist in reducing the impersonal atmosphere that can be associated with larger school administration. (p. 207)

13. School principals should give consideration to the differential treatment of upper and lower school students with respect to the use of physical facilities, the planning of social and recreational activities and the compilation of school rules. This differentiation should take into account the varying interests, needs, abilities and maturity of both groups. (p. 211)

14.1 The Education Department and school principals should give every encouragement to the establishment of freely elected and representative student councils.

14.2 Principals should give student councils meaningful responsibilities for decision-making in the areas of student behaviour, social, sporting and recreational matters and student dress and appearance, and the opportunity to express opinions on curriculum and school organization. The responsibilities of councils should be exercised in consultation with the principal and staff members of the school.

14.3 Due recognition should be given to the need for variety in approach according to the situation and the experience and abilities of the staff and students. (p. 220)

15.1 Where school buildings are to be built in areas where excessive noise is a possibility consideration should be given to measures of soundproofing instructional areas.

15.2 The Education Department should investigate the relationship between discipline and the design and situation of school buildings, with particular emphasis on the noise problem. (p. 223)

Chapter 10. Aspects of Curriculum

16.1 The fullest measure of support should be given to the development of new teaching strategies for the conduct of human relations workshops within secondary schools.

16.2 The Education Department should consider the establishment of a promotional position with responsibility in the area of student welfare.

16.3 The practice of involving parents and citizens in human relations workshops in the capacity of discussion leaders should be encouraged and extended where possible. (p. 244)

17.1 Every encouragement should be given at both a Departmental and a school level for the continued development of a well-planned and effectively operated programme of extra-curricular activities.

17.2 School councils composed of parents, teachers and students should be encouraged to take responsibility in the planning, operation and revision of extra-curricular activities for their schools.

17.3 Parent participation in school councils should be made only through their Parents and Citizens' Association. (p. 247)

Chapter 11. The School Staff

18. The Education Department in consultation with the Teachers' Union should consider the principle of "special" or accelerated promotion for the Principals' Promotion List and other promotional positions in the Secondary Division (p. 251)

19. The Education Department should give opportunities to those teachers seeking promotion within the Secondary Division who have formal training in educational administration. (p. 253)

20. The Education Department should set up a committee to examine and suggest modifications to practices with regard to practical teaching experience within the pre-service education period for teachers. (p. 261)

21. In each school, well-defined induction procedures for new teachers should be drawn up co-operatively by staff and administrators to complement and support measures which should be carried out at a system level by central office administrators and teachers' college staffs. (p. 264)

22. The practice of holding staff meetings at all levels should be encouraged and extended wherever possible. (p. 269)

23. Where schools assess such a need, students at the lower end of the ability range should have as many subjects as possible combined under one teacher. (p. 273)

Chapter 12. School and the Home

24. The services of trained social workers should be made available to assist in the counselling of students and to provide a liaison between the home, the school and other welfare agencies (p. 285)

25. The Education Department should appoint officers trained in vocational guidance procedures to have responsibility for examining the career opportunities available to maladaptive students. These officers, in co-operation with social workers and school guidance officers, should co-ordinate and direct efforts aimed at placing them in suitable employment. (p. 285)

26. The Education Department should institute measures whereby the efforts of guidance staff may be co-ordinated with those of social workers to ensure that every opportunity is given to maladaptive students to enable them to take advantage of career opportunities. (p. 286)

27. The appointment of further youth education officers by the Education Department should be encouraged. (p. 286)

28. The Education Department should encourage secondary schools to make greater use of parent interviews in dealing with student problems. (p. 291)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Discipline

For the members of any social system to derive a maximum of benefit and satisfaction from their membership and to ensure the proper functioning and maintenance of the system itself, it is essential that there should be some regulation of member behaviour. This regulation may be explicit in a legally established structure of formal status relationships; it may be codified within written acts, rules or regulations; or it may be implicit in a set of unstated expectations for behaviour that emerge informally from the group itself. The requirement for regulation is no less necessary for a school than it is for the society of which it is a part, for, in order that teaching and learning may take place in an effective manner, it is essential that the behaviour of all members—students, staff and administration—be subject to some form of regulation.

The *discipline* of a school is the state or condition of order or good behaviour among the students. The term also refers to the procedures by which this state of order is maintained in the school. In some cases these procedures refer solely to a set of negative sanctions invoked to control any deviation from established rules or patterns of behaviour that have gained acceptance over a long period of time. In a broader sense, however, discipline may be recognized as the process whereby student and staff relationships are structured to maximize the educattional, social and emotional well-being and attainments of the students, to attain the most effective and efficient use of human and material resources and to facilitate the maximum satisfaction of needs for all members of the school. This view, while recognizing the need to invoke sanctions in some cases, places emphasis on the production of constructive behaviour rather than upon corrective measures to be taken after a student has broken a rule.

Smith states (p. 292), "In general the system of discipline in a school will reflect the system found in the broader society." He sees the trend in the Western world as moving from force to persuasion and thence in the direction of self-control. However, as in society generally, he does see the need for teachers and principals to resort to measures of force when self-control and persuasion fail.

In fact, acceptable student behaviour has often been maintained by the use of rules and regulations enforced by penalties which varied in their severity according to the nature of the infringement. These penalties included suspension, corporal punishment, detention, reprimand, added duty and the withdrawal of a wide range of privileges. Modern approaches to teaching and learning now tend to de-emphasize the use of such sanctions and to seek the regulation of student behaviour through the development within students of self-control and a sense of responsibility to teachers, other students and the school. It is this view that is consistent with the definition of discipline as a process and which emphasizes the structuring of the school in such a way that situations leading to indiscipline will be largely avoided. It is within the climate established by such an approach that opportunities may be created for students to participate meaningfully in the decision-making processes of the school at levels appropriate to their stage of development and in which a sense of responsibility for proper behaviour may be developed.

Previous reports on education

The maintenance of effective school discipline, the measures to be used in its attainment and the particular organizational structures most likely to attain optimum student behaviour have been objects of discussion and recommendation in numerous reports on education. In most of these, the term "discipline" has been used to refer to deviations from accepted standards of student behaviour and the means to control these.

Of the reports reviewed by this Committee, many have pointed to the desirability of developing a sense of self-discipline within the student rather than relying upon extrinsic controls. The Spens Report (1938) stresses that students should understand that discipline is "a help and not a hindrance to a useful life". The Newsom Report (1963) sees discipline as necessary for effective child development but stresses that emphasis should be placed on helping children attain a lasting self-discipline. The Plowden Report (1967) supports this view and for this reason emphasizes that a relaxed friendly approach should be adopted by teachers.

Several reports refer to the imposition of school rules. The general consensus of opinion is that these should be few in number, that the reason for their formulation should be well understood, and that students should have some say in their compilation.

Some reports stress the need to provide a climate within the school conducive to good discipline. The Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives in Education in the Schools of Ontario takes the positive view that if children are involved in exciting learning situations they do not have the time or the inclination to commit acts of indiscipline. The Plowden Report expresses a similar view and sees that schools considered best on the grounds of informality, flexibility, freedom of approach and the like, have fewer discipline problems. The Newsom Report refers to organizational characteristics likely to cause indiscipline and lists such matters as overcrowding, inexperienced teachers, frequent teacher changes and conflict between home and school on matters of behaviour and dress. Most reports would support the view that there is a close relationship between certain organizational characteristics and discipline.

Almost all of the reports reviewed are firm in their conviction that physical discomforts in the form of deprivation or punishment do not make a positive contribution towards students' formal learning. The use of corporal punishment is deplored. The Newsom Report states that corporal punishment is humiliating to students and staff and its use highly questionable as a punishment and as a deterrent. The Plowden Report, although it found teachers, public and parents were generally against its abolition, recommends that the use of corporal punishment should cease in schools. The Ontario Report, after reviewing the question of punishment, recommends that corporal punishment and all other forms of degrading punishment should be replaced and in their stead a climate of warmth, co-operation and responsibility should be developed within the school.

In general, all reports emphasize the positive approach of developing within the school a climate in which there is mutual trust, respect and understanding between student and teacher; where there is an emphasis upon pastoral care and guidance and where each student can find the satisfaction of his academic, social and emotional needs in a spirit of co-operation with teachers and with all other students.

This brief review has not attempted to cover the full range of opinion on the matter of school discipline but rather to indicate briefly attitudes that have been expressed in some reports. No attempt has been made to describe the qualities of the broader school and environmental contexts which are conducive to the development of high standards of discipline. The Committee is aware of research and professional opinion regarding the many aspects of school discipline and student behaviour and adjustment to the school situation, and has been guided by it in its deliberations. Where necessary, reference is made to this research and opinion in the text of the Report.

The 1959 statement

In 1959 the Education Department published as a supplement to the Education Circular a statement entitled *Discipline in the Secondary School and Classroom.* This statement commented on the following three aspects of discipline:

(1) The work of the principal and the function of the school as a whole in creating and maintaining the tone most favourable to learning and to acceptable forms of behaviour.

(2) The work of the teacher in establishing the class tone in which disciplinary problems are least likely to develop.

(3) Breaches of discipline and their correction.

The statement did not attempt to present a complete survey of the work of the principal and the teacher in respect to discipline, but rather to offer suggestions that would have some practical value.

Discipline was seen not in the narrow sense of correction but

> to signify the degree of order or organization within a group which works, or is required to work, for a particular purpose.

This wider view conceived of a discipline "based on understanding of the goal, and revealing itself in a particular tone or working spirit". It saw that this distinguished the professional teacher from the layman who frequently thinks of discipline in terms of repression only.

The statement saw the principal as the key to the development of good tone and discipline. It listed, as the chief media through which his influence should take effect, the development and promulgation of a school policy, school organization, personal relations with staff and pupils; community relationships; and his co-operation with the administrative and specialist branches of the Department.

The development of class tone was seen to follow naturally from a mastery of subject matter and habitual conformity to certain fundamental principles of teaching. Interest in the professional views of others, and a readiness to re-examine his own methods were seen as the marks of the successful teacher. The view was also expressed that, in the final analysis, the disciplinary problems of the teacher can ultimately be solved only by himself. The following were set down as the two basic principles which should guide the teacher in the attainment of good class discipline:

> (1) Pupils should be kept interested in what they are doing. In a stimulating busy atmosphere behaviour problems will be few.
>
> (2) Since in the secondary school . . . it is not humanly possible to make every task absorbingly interesting all the time, teach pupils to behave through the concept of self-responsibility.

In its approach to punishment, the statement took the view that, historically, punishments had moved from an intent that was solely vindictive through the concepts of retributive, deterrent and reformative punishment. It clearly stated that corporal punishment was to be discouraged and that its use, except in a very few cases, was an admission of failure. The statement saw that, despite the work of even the most competent staffs, departures from acceptable forms of behaviour would occur, and accordingly set down principles derived from the practice of experienced principals and teachers to assist teachers in handling infractions of the rules of good behaviour.

The statement was intended basically as a handbook for teachers and administrators and as such its approach was somewhat restricted. No assessment of the nature or extent of disciplinary problems was attempted and no account of the wider environment, including the home, was given. Rather, its focus was on the classroom and the teaching situation, and little emphasis was given to supportive services or to the administrative reorganization which could be employed in the amelioration of disciplinary problems. Similarly measures which could be brought to bear to involve the wider resources of the home and community in developing a more positive school climate were not developed. Despite its narrow focus, however, it was a positive contribution in assisting teachers to cope with disciplinary problems at a time in which the State's secondary education system was subject to rapid growth and development.

The current investigation

The Committee, in collaboration with the Research and Planning Branch of the Education Department, has endeavoured to consider the subject of school discipline in as wide a context as the subject allowed. It saw discipline as a factor related to every aspect of school life—in many cases a relationship of both cause and effect.

Discipline is also a subject that is apt to arouse a great deal of comment from people in all walks of life. It tends to be a social issue that is the concern of all citizens and not the preserve of any set of professionals. For these reasons it has been thought advisable to provide as much background as possible on schools in general to enable readers to make a more informed assessment of the findings and opinions of the Committee.

Although the chapters of the Report do not all fall clearly into separate groups, it is possible to consider them to some extent in terms of their general purpose.

Chapters 2 and 3 deal with the notion of comprehensive education and with the schools system in Western Australia. This may appear to be mainly background material, although the Committee regards the advent of comprehensive secondary schools as one of great importance in Western Australia and as having quite specific implications for the prevention and cure of discipline problems.

Chapter 4 explains the research methods employed in the study of discipline in Western Australian secondary schools.

Chapter 5, which deals with the legal aspects of discipline, is perhaps more theoretical than most other chapters. However, it deals with matters which are of central importance and likely to be of considerable interest to anybody thinking seriously about this whole subject.

Chapter 6, *The Nature and Extent of the Problem*, is a key chapter describing in some detail just what the problem is all about. This is followed by the chapter on punishment, another key chapter which deals with theoretical issues and reports numerous findings from data obtained in the survey. Chapter 8, *The Severely Deviant Student,* portrays another dimension of the problem, the atypical student whose chronic maladaptive behaviour leads to serious disruption of the school.

The remaining four chapters may be described as filling in the context in which school discipline or indiscipline occurs. *The School and Its Organization* attempts to relate the incidence of indiscipline to factors such as school size, student government and other structural features. The chapters on curriculum, school staff and the school and the home provide further background and research data relating aspects of school discipline to the subjects indicated by the respective titles.

CHAPTER 2

COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATION AND SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

INTRODUCTION

On several occasions in this report mention is made of the fact that education in Western Australia has in many ways become "comprehensive" in recent years. Although the term may take on a number of meanings, and the essential features of a comprehensive school may be subject to debate, it may be useful to consider the implications of the policy of the Western Australian Education Department of providing comprehensive secondary schools.

One obvious sense in which the schools are comprehensive is that they admit for enrolment students from all sectors of the community without regard for socio-economic status or any other social or personal attributes. This is in contrast to the practice of selective enrolment based on school achievement which characterized the secondary schools in Western Australia a few decades ago, or the negative selection which continued until more recently in which students who for one reason or another were not strongly motivated to remain could leave school on their fourteenth birthday.

There is apparently sufficient egalitarianism in Australian society to insist that students from underprivileged and minority groups should have the same opportunities as others to acquire an education that permits them to take their place in that society without disadvantage. This fact has a number of correlatives which have further implications for the comprehensive school. Respect for fellow human beings, as entailed in the notion of comprehensive schools, implies a belief in democracy, the right of all persons to realize their potential, the right to be different, the need to develop the skills required for participation in community affairs.

Further, to educate students to become "autonomous" persons, capable of exercising individual judgment and taking responsibility for their own actions, necessarily entails the risk that some will decide not to accept traditional or officially supported values or submit to what they may see as arbitrary authority. The procedures of democracy, however desirable they may be, are prone to be inefficient and open to abuse and error. Similarly, the values implicit in comprehensive education demand administrative and pedagogical procedures that encourage the expression of opinions, the questioning of authority, the exercise of initiative and the learning of responsibility. These principles may lead to discipline problems that are at least different from, and may appear to be greater than, those which occur in "efficient", authoritarian, repressive schools.

The manner in which the school deals with disorder among students, whether of a relatively trivial or serious nature, will no doubt to some extent reflect attitudes prevailing in society. It is debatable at this stage, however, whether the secondary schools are reflecting society to the extent necessary if students are to be adequately prepared for their adult roles. To what extent should the school adopt the disciplinary measures practised in society at large? Two considerations prevent a simple, dogmatic answer to that question. Firstly, the school *is* part of society, and as such needs to be considered in any enquiry into what society does. Secondly, there are no other institutions very similar to the large secondary school, and it may well have problems and practical considerations unlike any encountered in the rest of society. Nevertheless, educators may need to examine their methods and motives to determine whether the school has built up a structure of relationships and sanctions which appear artificial and negative alongside both the ideals of the school itself and the actual outside world.

THE CONCEPT OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL

Overseas developments

The adoption of the comprehensive high school in Western Australia has followed similar trends in the United States of America and Canada, where it is practically universal, and in England, where it is becoming widely accepted.

The United States. American educators claim that the comprehensive school concept is a North American development. Miller states that "of all the educational innovations and organizational patterns to be found in the United States none is more uniquely American than the comprehensive school". He sees it as the educational expression of the democratic philosophy and observes that "in a real sense the comprehensive high school is the American dream applied to education: the vehicle whereby social and economic life is unstratified and equality of status and opportunity is enhanced". One of the clearest statements of the American comprehensive secondary school is given by Gardner. In the foreword of Conant's book, *The American High School Today,* (1959) he stated:

> It is called comprehensive because it offers under one roof (or series of roofs) secondary education for almost all the high school age children in one town or neighbourhood. It is responsible for educating the boy

> who will be an atomic scientist and the girl who will marry at eighteen; the prospective captain of a ship and the future captain of industry. It is responsible for educating the bright and the not so bright children with different vocational and professional ambitions and with various motivations. It is responsible, in sum, for providing good and appropriate education, both academic and vocational, for all young people within a democratic environment which the American people believe serves the principles they cherish.

Essential to the American view is the belief that education is an arm of social policy. It is the means whereby all may be given an equal opportunity in life. To those who framed the course of American education, the idea of a secondary education which could be available only to the children of the wealthy or which discriminated among children in any way was repugnant. The comprehensive school was seen as a prototype of a democracy "in which various groups must have a degree of self consciousness as groups and yet be federated into a larger whole through the recognition of common interests and ideals. Life in such a school is a natural and valuable preparation for life in a democracy". (N.E.A. 1918, pp. 24-26).

The United Kingdom. In the United Kingdom the development of the comprehensive high school had similar roots. The idea of a "common" school dates back to proposals made by the Chartists, and by radical politicians in the 1840's. In more recent times, the idea was taken up by organizations of the labour movement and teachers and was the subject of much debate. Throughout the 1920's and 1930's the demand for the comprehensive approach grew and, with the passing of the Education Act 1944, it became legally and administratively possible to set up this type of school. It has only been in more recent years, however, that there has been considerable development of the concept in many parts of that country.

The development of the comprehensive high school in the United Kingdom has taken various forms. Monks, in referring to its development, identifies six main forms, not all of which, he states, would be fully acceptable as comprehensive. He distinguishes the British comprehensive school from other secondary schools—with which, he says, they have many aims in common—by the following three sets of objectives:

(1) To eliminate separation in post-primary education by gathering pupils of the whole ability range in one school so that, by their association, pupils may benefit each other and that easy readjustments in grouping and in subjects studied may be made as pupils themselves change and develop:

(2) To collect pupils representing a cross-section of society in one school, so that good academic and social standards, an integrated school society and a gradual contribution to an integrated community beyond the school may be developed out of this amalgam of varying abilities and social environments:

(3) To concentrate teachers, accommodation and equipment so that pupils of all ability groups may be offered a wide variety of educational opportunity and that scarce resources may be used economically.

Pedley (1966), in reviewing the development of the British comprehensive school, sees it as an extension of the primary school concept. He makes the following comment (pp. 21-22):

> The comprehensive secondary school is simply an extension of the comprehensive primary school and has the same aims. It takes practically all the children from a given district between eleven and fifteen and those who wish to stay at school till eighteen or nineteen. Because special interests develop as people grow up, such a school must offer a wide range of courses to meet the needs of different pupils. It may arrange the grouping of children in their classes according to age, general ability, special abilities, special interests, or a combination of some or all of these. This matter, as in the primary school, is mainly a professional one concerning the most effective way of achieving an aim about which there is no disagreement—the full development and progress of the individual pupil.

While the British development has differed in significant ways from the American, the final emerging philosophies are closely parallel. Both see in the mingling of children of differing abilities, attainments and social backgrounds the potential for development of democratic behaviour and attitudes as well as a broad range of educational advantages.

Some characteristics of comprehensive schools

Gue (1972), in a paper on the comprehensive school, lists nine characteristics

(1) Large enrolments—in the range from 500 to 2,000 students.

(2) Large school plant.

(3) Transportation services—public transport to bring students living some distance from the school.

(4) Highly developed guidance services.

(5) Sensitivity to innovations in education.

(6) Learning resources centres.

(7) Co-curricular activities.

(8) Articulation with other institutions in society.

(9) Sensitivity to the community.

Gue's description refers to the Canadian comprehensive school, but the particular characteristics he lists refer in large measure to the development of comprehensive schools elsewhere.

DISCIPLINE AND THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL

The philosophy of the comprehensive secondary school indicates a set of principles relating to the structuring of teacher-student relationships and the regulation of student behaviour. The following are the more obvious:

(1) The comprehensive school aims to foster the ability to think critically and independently and thereby arrive at principles upon which behaviour can be based.

(2) Through its broad curriculum, the comprehensive school aims to develop within students (a) an understanding of their duties and rights as citizens, and of their responsibilities within the school, and within the wider society; and (b) the capacity for personal relationship and sympathetic response to persons of the same and of different traditions and cultures.

(3) The comprehensive school, in accordance with its aim to prepare citizens for a democracy, fosters student initiative and participation in decision-making through legitimate channels of communication. This will involve the development of co-operative student participation in school government and in the determination and supervision of the rules to govern their own conduct.

(4) The comprehensive school strives to establish and maintain close ties with the community in which it is located; to involve community members in the educative process; and to involve students and teachers in the activities of the community.

(5) The comprehensive school seeks to foster a climate wherein the student may seek with confidence and respect guidance in problems of a social, emotional and educational nature.

(6) The comprehensive school seeks to provide an educational milieu in which a student can select freely educational experiences that challenge and sustain his interest and capabilities which allow him to develop intellectually without frustration and at his own rate and which fosters at varying rates of development growth beyond a narrow intellectualism.

In effect the comprehensive school strives to achieve a discipline that is self imposed and that is based upon the provision of positive incentives. Rather than impose negative sanctions to regulate behaviour, it seeks to develop within the school a climate "that provides explanations, permits discussion and invites participation by students in setting of standards whenever they are qualified to do so". It is one which "implies respect for the dignity of the individual, and avoids exaggerated emphasis on status differences and barriers to free communication. Hence it repudiates harsh abusive and vindictive forms of punishment and the use of sarcasm, ridicule and intimidation" (Hall-Dennis, 1968, p. 95).

WESTERN AUSTRALIAN DEVELOPMENT

At the end of World War II, secondary schools in Western Australia were of various types. Perth Modern School, the original secondary school in the State, was co-educational yet very restrictive in its entry; country high schools followed a similar pattern but were less restrictive in their intakes; in the main centres of population secondary education to Third Year level for those who were able to complete satisfactorily a primary school education was available in single-sex central schools. From this time on, however, moves towards the development of co-educational comprehensive community high schools were undertaken. To the present day, two broad stages of this development may be identified.

The first stage

The first stage in the development of the comprehensive high school involved the breaking down of the highly selective entry barriers that had earlier characterized secondary education and the adoption of the principle of co-education. Few would appreciate the magnitude of this task, which brought together into the one school students of both sexes and of varying intellectual capacities and achievements. To break down the selective entry into Perth Modern School in the face of public opinion and the pressures exerted by "old boys" must rank as an achievement for educational diplomacy and far-sightedness.

The newly constituted high school, while it was not fully comprehensive in nature, did set the foundation upon which subsequent developments towards comprehensiveness were to occur.

The spirit that motivated its development may be seen in the following extract taken from a policy statement given in *The Education Circular*, December, 1958 (p. 240).

> The co-educational, comprehensive community high school has emerged as a new type of secondary school designed for the new role of education in modern society. As a community we have accepted a policy of education for all and as a democracy the separation and stratification of our youth is neither necessary nor desirable. As vocations become more and more specialized, the school stands as the last bastion between the insistent demands of commerce and the broad, general needs essential to a well-educated citizen. It is imperative to the well-being of a democratic society that the school acts as a unifying process, at all times holding together children of diverse aptitudes, emotions and interests, and at the same time encouraging individual differences to be utilized for the common good.

This new school was multilateral, one in which various "tracks", or "streams", were identified. Students according to ability and achievement were allocated into courses which were variously designated as professional, commercial, and technical. Under this administrative organization little, if any, mixing in classes occurred between students in the various "streams". In effect, students were placed in schools-within-schools according to academic anticipation and little transfer between streams occurred. That which did occur was in a "downward" direction from academic to commercial or technical, for subject specialization, particularly in the fields of science, mathematics and languages, precluded a student from changing "upwards" to an academic stream.

A feature of this phase of development of the comprehensive school was the continuing effect of the externally operated Junior and Leaving Certificate examinations upon the structure and operation of schools and upon the curriculum and programmes which were offered. During this period, affected by chronological promotion and an extension of the school leaving age, the secondary school population increased and changed in nature. In the attempt to cater for a changing school population, further subjects were added and home economics and manual arts blocks were built in all schools. Before long the unsuitability of many of the courses offered to less able students in First, Second and Third Years produced an interesting attempt to provide a less academic offering known as the High School Certificate. Generally, however, the period was characterized by the prominence of external examinations and by the continuation of more traditional forms of secondary education.

The second stage

A greater degree of comprehensiveness developed within Western Australian high schools as a result of the implementation of the Dettman Report (1969) recommendations. With the adoption of the Achievement Certificate proposals, the lower school (First, Second and Third Years) was freed from the constraints previously imposed upon curriculum and organization by the Junior Certificate. The Leaving Certificate, however, remains and to this extent the second phase of development, which extends to the present time, lacks the full development of comprehensiveness that the architects of the Dettman Report visualized.

The adoption of the Achievement Certificate in the lower school has extended the development towards comprehensiveness begun in the 1950's. Under the new scheme, full provision is being made for individual abilities. In the core subjects there is a multi-level approach to instruction in the sciences, mathematics, social studies and English. Instead of a single streaming on general ability, students now have the opportunity to achieve individually in these subjects on a level commensurate with their ability and previous achievement. The emphasis, therefore, is on student achievement—hence the name, Achievement Certificate. In the optional areas the choice of subjects has been expanded to provide an exceptionally wide range. Students now choose subjects for their intrinsic interest and educational worth rather than for their capacity to complete the requirements of certification. The multi-level approach to core subjects and the throwing of the choice of options open to all produces a much fuller intermingling of students than was the case in the earlier streaming by courses. This is not to say that challenge is lacking from the Achievement Certificate courses, for students of higher intellectual capacity still work at a level commensurate with that achieved under the Junior Certificate.

Important in the Achievement Certificate organisation is the emphasis given to pastoral care. The development of human relations courses and of subjects with a greater social orientation bear witness to the change in emphasis that has occurred. The emphasis has changed from a narrow intellectualism to a broader approach that not only seeks academic excellence but also provides for the full personal development of students. Some schools make special provision for students who have demonstrated exceptional ability in particular fields such as music, art, mathematics, languages and science.

The Achievement Certificate with its cumulative assessment has changed the emphasis in secondary schools away from narrow academic performance to the development of each student in accordance with his abilities and interests. The removal of the stigma of streams must be seen as a significant step in the development of a true comprehensiveness in this State.

Future developments

Comprehensive secondary education in Western Australia is in a process of continuing modification. The development of a "levels" approach was a necessary step in its development yet this has never been seen as an optimum solution. More recently non-graded approaches have been attempted in the lower school and efforts in this direction are given encouragement by the Education Department. The policy of fostering the welfare of students is being vigorously pursued at a Departmental and at a school level and the variety of approach evident in this regard augurs well for the future development of this aspect of secondary education.

What emerges as the greatest challenge at the present time is to provide Achievement Certificate type experiences in the upper school for the increasing numbers of students for whom courses leading to the Leaving Certificate examination are proving unsuitable.

OBJECTIVES AND AIMS

Objectives of the comprehensive school

The adoption of the comprehensive school philosophy imposes certain demands upon the structure and organization of the school and upon its curriculum and teaching/learning procedures.

In an appendix to its recent report, *A Critical Appraisal of Comprehensive Education* (1972), the National Foundation for Educational Research in England

and Wales set down a statement of the main objectives for the comprehensive school, which was agreed upon by a group of teachers, educational administrators and research workers from the various disciplines relevant to education. This statement classified the objectives of the comprehensive school under the headings of (a) organizational structure and (b) cultural content. The following description sets out the essential features of this classification.

Organizational structure. Under this heading the Report states that a school should, by its structure and organization, endeavour to make possible

(1) Continuing personal concern and provision for individual welfare and security, including physical and mental health.

(2) Continuing equality of opportunity throughout the secondary stage of schooling, i.e. no irrelevant obstacles to self-development.

(3) Flexibility which provides for varying interests and rates of development and which encourages individual initiative and personal choice.

(4) The attachment of prestige to a wide variety of achievements and the recognition of personal and group endeavour.

(5) The achievement of social integration, e.g. between social classes, sexes, ages and ability ranges.

(6) An authority structure
  (a) within the staff,
  (b) between staff and pupils,
  (c) amongst the pupils themselves,
which is appropriate to a school within a democratic society.

(7) The encouragement of the continuation of formal education for as long as is appropriate.

(8) Guidance in relation to careers which takes account both of the needs of the pupils and of the local and national community. This would involve contact between the school and employers, colleges of further education, etc.

(9) Organic linkage between the school and the community in which it is set.

(10) Degree of contact between the school and communities other than the local one.

Clearly many of these objectives could be achieved in schools other than those of the comprehensive type. Taken together, however, they express a need to place an emphasis on promoting mutual regard and understanding between students of different kinds of ability and among persons of diverse social backgrounds—matters which are more readily achievable within a comprehensive structure.

In the translation of these objectives into action, it is possible that variation will occur in the resultant organizational structures. This will be a consequence of different environments. In each, however, individuality will be fostered—not a narrowly selfish individuality but one which recognizes and is made possible by variation in the wider social environment. It is an individuality that accepts as one of its consequences social and moral responsibility.

Cultural context. The Report extends the view that the curriculum and teaching of the school, whether formal or informal, should have regard to the development of children with respect to skills, physical activities, forms of understanding, awareness and creativity, and economic and occupational considerations. In these matters its objectives differ little from the objectives of other secondary schools. It does differ, however, in the particular emphasis that it gives to these in contrast to the narrowly intellectual approach to education that some would advocate.

The degree to which the school should involve itself in the problems which face society is a continuing issue on which school authorities are subject to considerable pressure. Some consider that the school should adopt a passive role; others urge that it should actively seek to involve itself in and explore the vital problems and issues which face its own and all other societies throughout the world. Today's issues such as war, pollution, sex, morality, behaviour, world government, responsibility are seen as an integral part of a student's environment and, if our society requires of its members thoughtful and meaningful participation, many consider that these issues will need to form in varying degrees part of the programme of the school. The objectives of the comprehensive school align themselves more with this second approach. Evidence of this may be seen in the particular objectives relating to cultural content set down by the National Foundation. The section on interpersonal and moral education, for example, states (p. 181):

> It goes without saying that the school will be concerned with specific virtues such as respect for others and for self and for property, consideration of people's interests, fairness and honesty; and with general virtues such as conscientiousness, sense of responsibility, integrity, respect for law, self control, sincerity, self reliance, loyalty, a sane attitude to authority; and with those virtues such as determination, courage, patience and perseverance which are necessary to put the others into practice. But at the secondary stage it is of particular importance that children should think critically and independently and thereby come to principles on which their behaviour can be based. The range of people to whom these principles are applied is also of crucial importance. At this age also the attention of children should be directed towards their duties and rights as citizens, towards the responsibilities involved in marriage and bringing up a family and towards opportunities for service to the neighbourhood and to a wider society. It is also necessary to prepare them for responsible adult personal

> relationships by way of personal manners, poise and courtesy and by developing their capacity for personal relationships and sympathetic response to persons of the same and of different traditions and cultures.

This statement reflects an approach which sees that, within the child, qualities such as the physical, intellectual and emotional are fully interrelated and not distinct matters to be considered independently of each other. It suggests the philosophy that the comprehensive school, in addition to supporting a purely intellectual function, also has a much broader responsibility in preparing the student for life in the community by fostering desirable social-emotional patterns of behaviour.

Consistent too with this philosophy is a particular set of economic and occupational considerations that structures educational experiences so that students may be prepared to cope with the circumstances of work in a modern industrial society. Such an approach emphasizes appreciation and understanding of the effects of technological change, the requirements of the world of work and training in the practical complexities of adult life.

The comprehensive approach finds narrow specialization incompatible with its concept of education yet it seeks to allow each student to gain mastery in areas of skill or understanding in which he has particular interest and aptitude. It seeks further to emphasize the motivational aspect of skills, activities and modes of conduct as well as the actual attainments. In this regard the Report states (p. 182):

> By this is meant the interest in them and capacity to enjoy them for the satisfaction that they give as well as the more extrinsic motivations such as desire to prepare for a chosen career, to pass examinations or to win approval and prestige. This will exhibit itself not only in curiosity, absorption and a sense of satisfaction at school but also in the use of leisure time, in the tendency to continue with them after leaving school, when not obliged to do so. It will also exhibit itself in the determination to achieve standards appropriate to each activity, i.e. those connected with skill, getting things right, discovery, etc. In the more interpersonal sphere, it will exhibit itself in the desire to enter into personal relationships, to understand others coming from different backgrounds, etc. Similarly in the religious sphere, this will mean an active personal involvement.

The comprehensive school aims to provide an educational environment that caters for the needs of all students regardless of background or ability. Its particular philosophy has far reaching implications for discipline.

Aims and the comprehensive school

The question of what schools should teach has been the subject of debate and speculation from the very beginning of formal education. What kind of person does society want to have produced in its schools? The answer to this question has obvious implications for teaching method, curriculum content, the social structure of educational instructions and thus also the matter of discipline.

One of the basic issues in debate upon aims is whether man should be educated as economic, political and social man or whether he should be educated as man. Basically the question involved is that of the relative importance of the individual and society. Educational aims in many places and at different times have reflected the varying responses that have been made to this question. In some, the needs of the child have been subordinated to those of society. In others, this position has been reversed. Dewey's formula of "the child in society" reflects the beginning of a synthesis of those extreme positions—the child should not be treated as an isolated entity but the education he is given should be to prepare him for "life in a society which respects his individuality".

Implicit in many arguments regarding aims in education is the issue of an individual's orientation to his society. Within a static society or one in which little change occurs the emphasis will be given to educating a pupil to an acceptance of his social heritage and its relevance for present living. The aim of education will be to ensure stability of the society's institutions and conditions in the present and into the future. In a society subject to rapid social, economic and technological change, however, the necessity to plan an education that enables adaptation to such change becomes necessary. In this situation it may be necessary to delete, modify or play down some of the values, beliefs or standards that have ceased to have relevance or appeal to students. The degree to which this should take place, of course, is subject to debate by those who see no need to omit highly valued parts of our inheritance from any programme.

In Western Australia. In the report of the Secondary School Curriculum Committee (1958-64) the basic aim of a secondary schools programme was stated to be

> . . . to provide the opportunity for girls and boys to develop into individuals and citizens whose attitudes and attainments enable them to lead full lives, to contribute to society and to obtain employment satisfactory to themselves and their employers.

This report, which in many respects developed the principles of curriculum and organization that have been established under the Achievement Certificate, recognized the rapid social and economic changes that were occurring in Western Australia and it had as one of its primary aims an evaluation of secondary education to determine "whether the products of our schools were meeting the needs of citizenship and employment" (p. 7). The aims which that Committee identified were outlined under five main areas, which the report states were "chosen as covering all aspects of the Secondary Curriculum":

(1) Health and physical education.

(2) Intellectual development and the basic skills.

(3) Personal and group relationships.

(4) Responsibility for moral choices.

(5) Environmental factors and forces.

While the above aims chart the broad course which secondary education was to take, it is in the general principles enunciated by the Committee that forces for change may be identified. Recognizing that the existing system of secondary education was largely determined by the demands of external public examinations, the Committee outlined the following major principles to guide its proposals:

(1) Modern society demands of its citizens and employees a flexibility in educational attainments and outlooks that will enable them to assimilate increasing knowledge, to change with minimum confusion from old to new techniques and occupations and to grapple with community problems which are becoming more complex than ever before. Thus a general education should aim at the development of flexible skills, techniques and attitudes rather than just the transmission of a body of information which may itself become outdated. Organization of schools, of courses, and of examinations should aim at greater flexibility, both in demand on students and in opportunity for educational experiences.

(2) Since an increasing proportion of the population will move into skilled occupations, educational experiences in so-called academic subjects should be realistic and meaningful, and give some chance of success. Parents themselves will have to adopt a realistic outlook in regard to their ambitions for their children. On the other hand, the system should be designed to avoid the invidious distinction between those who can get a certificate and those who cannot.

(3) A knowledge of how children learn should be basic to the development of the organization of secondary education. For example, children learn at different rates and the organization should be cognizant of this. Children prefer to be challenged and yet to have success. Hence, learning goals should be defined in such a way as to provide for real success but demand sustained effort. Moreover, children are concerned with making meaning and order out of the world around them, and any proposed curriculum should take advantage of such factors. A number of other learning principles are sufficiently well established to serve as a guide for the development of learning experiences.

(4) The main objective of the first stage of secondary education is to provide a broad, general education which is designed to help the development of thinking, and

(a) to provide opportunity for study in elected areas; and

(b) to provide a firm basis for further study in and out of school.

While there is some place for pre-vocational subjects, they should be kept to a minimum and should aim at general educational outcomes rather than specific job training. The relative proportion of pre-vocational education will vary for different groups.

These principles reflected in many ways the changing social, economic and cultural character of Western Australian society and the consequent changes which were occurring within the educational system. Whereas secondary education had been elitist and somewhat narrowly intellectual, it was now becoming a more broadly based general education suited to the needs and aspirations of a more diverse population.

The Dettman Report. The Report on the Secondary School Curriculum strongly influenced the Report of the Committee on Secondary Education (1969). The Dettman Committee accepted the general aims set down by the 1964 report as having direct relevance to the present situation. It saw that the "major purpose of education is the transmission of culture from one generation to the next" but qualified this by stating:

> A feature of our society is its mutability. We believe this to be one of its great strengths in that potential for change provides the possibility for improvement. This potential can only be realized if correct decisions are taken by citizens in our democratic society. The purpose of education then is not merely to transmit culture but to equip students for future decision making which will improve society.

The Dettman Committee also saw that there was a need for a more detailed statement of aims and provided the following as a set of criteria by which behavioural objectives could be established. (Paragraph numbers refer to the Dettman Report.)

74. Intellectual development. Education should promote the student's intellectual development by helping him

(1) to improve techniques of communication;
(2) to consolidate basic skills and to develop study skills;
(3) to develop the elements of logical thinking and problem solving;
(4) to develop interest in the pursuit of knowledge; and
(5) to develop appreciation and taste.

75. Integration into society. Education should contribute to the student's integration into society by helping him

(1) to understand Australian society including its cultural, social and political traditions and the role of the individual, the family and other small groups;

(2) to recognize the rights and responsibilities of individuals and groups in relation to other individuals and groups, and in relation to society and to the State;

(3) to recognize the role and significance of industrialization, technology and science in modifying society;

(4) to recognize the agencies which mould public opinion and identify the methods they employ;

(5) to participate adequately in group discussion;

(6) to participate in and enjoy aesthetic and artistic activities;

(7) to develop cultural background through reading and participating in other appropriate activities and by a variety of forms of self-expression; and

(8) to interpret current events and conditions in their historical and cultural perspective.

76. Physical and mental health. Education should promote the student's physical and mental health by helping him

(1) to understand and control his body and emotions;

(2) to follow accepted health and safety practices;

(3) to cultivate recreational interests and to foster a continuing concern for personal fitness;

(4) to appreciate and support the services of health and safety authorities; and

(5) to recognize health as a world-wide problem.

77. Economic competence. Education should assist the student to become economically competent by helping him

(1) to explore interests, develop abilities and receive a sufficient range of experiences to make a wise choice of future employment and career;

(2) to understand something of the functioning of the economic system including the pressures directed at consumers;

(3) to develop competency in handling personal financial matters; and

(4) to appreciate measures designed to conserve human and natural resources.

78. Emotional and spiritual growth. Education should help the student

(1) to move towards emotional maturity;

(2) to assimilate moral principles and to develop modes of behaviour in accordance with these principles;

(3) to develop sympathetic understanding of other individuals and groups, including the other sex and other age groups and to recognize health and economic welfare as world-wide problems in which human beings are interdependent; and

(4) to participate in and appreciate constructive corporate experiences.

It is clear that the above statement of aims is comprehensive in at least two senses—it concerns the full range of types of human development, activity and behaviour; and some of the aims in particular imply that the education is to take place in a setting that permits interaction with students from all segments of society.

CONCLUSION

The comprehensive school does not *as such* solve all educational problems. It is an institution that seems consistent with certain values supposedly held by a majority of citizens in Australia and elsewhere. Within the main concept, which entails comprehensive enrolments and a comprehensive programme, there is room for a great variety of approaches to the organization and management of the school.

However, the Committee sees a number of important principles as being deeply implicit in the very notion of comprehensive education. These have been discussed in this chapter and elsewhere in the Report. They include principles relating to the dignity of the individual student, the right of students to be prepared for active participation in community life, the need to consider the educational needs, capabilities and interests of each student in order to maximize his satisfaction and achievement at school.

These considerations are highly important to the matter of discipline, whether prophylactic or corrective. Schools must be urged to place all possible emphasis on positive measures that will prevent student dissatisfaction from developing to the point of overt disruption to the school programme and other forms of anti-social or anti-school behaviour. Secondly, where corrective measures have become necessary, forms of punishment must be such as are congruent with the general principles of the comprehensive school.

CHAPTER 3

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN WESTERN AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Introduction

Government secondary schools in Western Australia are non-selective, co-educational, comprehensive district schools. They offer an education over five years following seven years of primary school education. With a policy of

TABLE 3.1

DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY STUDENTS, GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT, WESTERN AUSTRALIA—AUGUST 1972

	Government	Catholic	Other Non-Government	Total
First Year	16,332	2,956	1,354	20,642
Second Year	15,729	2,810	1,314	19,853
Third Year	14,031	2,655	1,291	17,977
Years 1–3, total	46,092	8,421	3,959	58,472
Years 1–3, percentage	78·83	14·40	6·77	100
Fourth Year	5,742	1,404	1,086	8,232
Fifth Year	3,617	1,055	976	5,648
Special Class	390	....	....	....
Years 4–5, total	9,749	2,459	2,062	14,270
Years 4–5, percentage	68·32	17·23	14·45	100
Years 1–5, total	55,841	10,880	6,021	72,742
Years 1–5, percentage	76·77	14·96	8·28	100

chronological promotion operating in primary schools entry into secondary school normally occurs at the age of twelve-plus and, with the leaving age set at the end of the year in which a student turns fifteen years, most children remain at high school until the end of the third year.

In 1972 there were 72,742 students enrolled in both Government and non-Government schools. Approximately 76.8 per cent of these were attending Government schools, 14.9 per cent Catholic schools and 8.3 per cent other non-Government schools. Table 3.1 sets out enrolments by year in Government, Catholic and other non-Government schools for the year 1972.

Fourth and Fifth Year enrolments

It is apparent from the percentages given in Table 3.1 that non-Government schools are responsible for a larger proportion of students at Fourth and Fifth Years than they are at the earlier years. This was also the case at the time of the Dettman Report, 1968. However, Table 3.2 shows that the proportion of upper school enrolments is increasing in all schools, and more rapidly in Government than in non-Government schools.

TABLE 3.2

PERCENTAGE OF ENROLMENTS IN UPPER AND LOWER CLASSES IN GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

	Government		Non-Government	
	1968	1972	1968	1972
Years 1–3	87·4	82·5	76·4	73·2
Years 4–5	12·6	17·5	23·6	26·7
	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Numbers and sizes of secondary schools

Secondary students in Western Australia are educated in three main types of schools:

Senior high schools—catering for years 1 to 5
High schools—catering for years 1 to 3
Junior high schools—primary grades and secondary years 1 to 3.

A small number of students also receive secondary education in primary schools or by means of correspondence lessons. Table 3.3 sets out, by type of school, secondary enrolments in this State.

TABLE 3.3

SECONDARY STUDENTS ENROLLED IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS BY TYPES (WESTERN AUSTRALIA 1972)

Type	Enrolment	%
Senior high	43,794	78·43
High	7,266	13·01
Junior high*	4,452	7·97
Other	329	0·59
Total	55,841	100·00

* Junior high schools are classified for certain administrative purposes as primary schools, and do not appear in some of the following tables.

The sizes of Government secondary schools are shown in Table 3.4. In the four year period since the Dettman Report, the total number of secondary schools (not including junior high schools) has increased from 48 to 56.

TABLE 3.4

GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS—ENROLMENTS AND CLASSIFICATIONS, 1972

Classification	101–200	201–300	301–400	401–600	601–800	801–1000	1001–1200	1201–1400	1400+	Total
Senior high	....	....	2	5	2	6	8	12	7	42
High	1	3	2	3	2	2	1	....	....	14
Total	1	3	4	8	4	8	9	12	7	56

Rural-urban distribution of students

Table 3.5 sets out for both Government and non-Government schools the distribution of secondary students in metropolitan and country areas for the year 1972.

TABLE 3.5

DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY STUDENTS METROPOLITAN/COUNTRY (WESTERN AUSTRALIA 1972)

	Metropolitan Enrolment	%	Country Enrolment	%	Whole State
Government	38,219	68·44	17,622	31·56	55,841
Non-Government	14,335	84·72	2,566	15·18	16,901
Total	52,554	72·25	20,188	27·75	72,742

The figures in this table illustrate the concentration of Western Australia's secondary school population within the metropolitan area. Almost three-quarters of the students obtaining a secondary education in Western Australia do so in schools in the Perth metropolitan area.

Student/Teacher Ratios. The student/teacher ratio in Government secondary schools in Western Australia in 1971 was 17.6. This is calculated by dividing the total number of students by the total number of professional staff employed in schools, including principals, for example, but not including clerical staff and teachers on leave. The ratio should not, of course, be confused with the size of classes. The number of students in a class varies widely depending on the nature of the subject being taught at a particular time and place. As all teachers need time for preparation and marking of work, the *average* size of classes would be considerably greater than 17.6.

Figure 3.1 shows that there has been a consistent improvement in the student/teacher ratios since 1962.

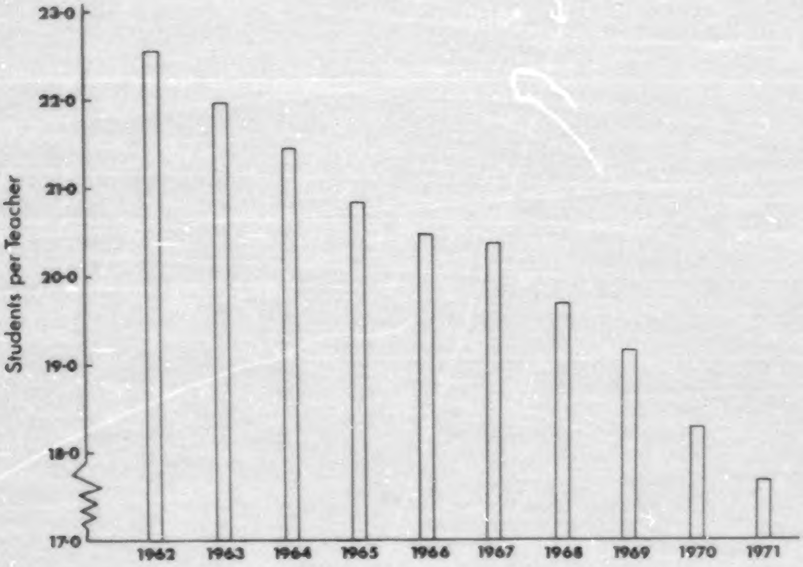

Figure 3.1 STUDENT/TEACHER RATIO

THE FIRST STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

The development of the present system of secondary education in Western Australia may conveniently be considered to consist of two main stages. The first stage includes the period of approximately thirty-five years from the foundation of the first Government high school (Perth Modern School) in 1911 to the beginning of a reorganization of secondary education in the years following World War II. During this period central schools—large primary schools which catered for the vocational needs of early school leavers—were extended by the addition of courses which catered for a three-year professional or academic stream. In some central schools, the primary and post-primary sections were separated and established as separate schools, often catering for pupils of one sex only. It was during this period that district high schools, in many respects resembling Perth Modern School, were established at Kalgoorlie, Northam, Bunbury, Albany and Geraldton.

This first stage in the development of secondary education may be described as being "elitist" in character and only a comparative few of those who completed primary school went on to complete five or even three years of secondary education. Table 3.6, which sets out by ten yearly intervals the total and secondary enrolments in all Government schools, illustrates this fact.

TABLE 3.6

TOTAL AND SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENTS IN WESTERN AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS
1920–1970

Year	Total enrolments	Secondary enrolment	Secondary as % of total
1920	43,102	5,000	10·39
1930	55,197	6,227	11·28
1940	55,594	8,855	15·92
1950	69,503	11,348	16·32
1960	119,788	27,552	23·00
1970	174,024	50,769	29·53

In 1920 only 10.4 per cent of the total enrolments in Government schools in Western Australia were accounted for by secondary enrolments. By 1930 secondary enrolments had risen to 11.3 per cent and by the period of the War, this had risen to approximately 16.0 per cent of enrolments.

The highly selective nature of secondary education in the period under consideration is further illustrated by the fact that entry to Perth Modern School, the most prestigeous Government secondary school in the State, was granted on the basis of performance in a Government controlled scholarship examination. Educationally, selection to this school was considered a high honour. Entry to other high schools in the State was also strongly competitive. A school entrance examination held in association with the scholarship examination, coupled with a system of recommendations from primary headmasters, ensured that only those students with above average achievement found their way into a high school. The selection process continued less formally through the high school years owing to the limited range and lack of flexibility of courses available. Students who found that they were not suited to the courses in which they were enrolled had no alternative but to leave.

In general, those who were successful in gaining entrance to a high school had good reason to conform to the norms and rules of the school. They were a select group for whom the community had high expectations. To fail after selection would bring discredit to the student and disappointment to his family and friends. Further, a satisfactory secondary school performance leading to the attainment of the Junior and Leaving Certificates was a strong guarantee of entry into the professions, the Commonwealth and State Public Services and career positions in private industry. In a period of slow economic growth or in time of economic uncertainty such as this State witnessed in the period of the 1930's these were strong inducements to conform.

Students who were not selected for entry to high schools but continued their education in central schools may have lacked the high expectations characteristic of the selected ones. However, the ability to leave school on the fourteenth birthday meant that students who were not performing well, who were alienated from school or who were economically unable to remain at school could leave at the end of the first year or during the second year of their secondary schooling. Thus, in central schools, too, those continuing at school were likely to conform voluntarily to the behavioural requirements of the school authorities.

THE SECOND STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

The second stage of secondary school development in Western Australia has coincided with a period of rapid population and economic growth. This growth has imposed considerable strains upon the economy of the State and upon its education system. Within the past twenty-five years primary school enrolments have more than doubled, secondary enrolments have almost tripled and the number of teachers employed has increased threefold. Table 3.7 sets out for selected years the numbers of primary and secondary teachers and the numbers of primary and secondary enrolments in the Government schools in Western Australia for the period 1920-1970.

The provision of educational facilities within Western Australia since World War II has been complicated by geographical shifts in population. Developments that have occurred in agriculture and in mining have resulted in sudden growth in school enrolments in areas where facilities were non-existent or where they were designed to cater for only a very small population. In the field of secondary education this has added another dimension to a perennial and increasing problem

—that of providing for all areas of the State a secondary education comparable in quality to that available in the metropolitan area of Perth and in larger country areas.

TABLE 3.7

GOVERNMENT SCHOOL POPULATION STATISTICS 1920–1970

Year	Primary enrolment	Secondary enrolment	Total	Primary teachers	Secondary teachers	Total
1920	43,102	5,000	48,102	1,418	83	1,501
1930	48,970	6,227	55,197	1,890	128	2,018
1940	46,739	8,855	55,594	1,872	181	2,053
1950	58,155	11,348	69,503	1,802	436	2,138
1960	92,236	27,552	119,788	2,640	1,310	3,950
1970	123,255	50,769	174,024	3,901	2,787	6,688

Reorganization

During 1946 and 1947 an important reorganization of secondary education in Western Australia was instituted. Central schools were renamed three-year high schools and were aligned administratively and organizationally with the existing five-year high schools. For the first time a full-time inspector of secondary schools was appointed.

The junior high school. Foremost among moves to provide secondary education in the rural areas of Western Australia was the development of the junior high school system in 1950. These schools developed rapidly with consolidation measures such as the use of school buses and the closure of some rural primary schools. Under the Education Regulations, a school which has an average daily attendance of over 150 primary pupils and over 25 secondary pupils in the first, second and third years combined may be declared a junior high school if the Director-General thinks fit.

While the junior high school may not be able to offer the large range of courses available in a modern Western Australian high school, it has enabled many students in rural areas to obtain a secondary education which would have been otherwise denied to them or which could only have been obtained by residing at a distant town at considerable expense to parents.

Expansion

The rapid growth that has occurred in secondary education in this State in the post World War II years has been due to a combination of factors including the raising of the school leaving age, population growth, and a general relative increase in the demand for secondary education.

The raising of the school leaving age. In 1943 the Government was empowered by the Education Act Amendment Act (No. 30 of 1943) to raise the compulsory age from 14 to 15 years. It was another twenty years before this was implemented. After the permissible leaving age had remained at the fourteenth birthday for almost 90 years, it was in 1963 raised to the end of the year in which the student turned fourteen and in 1966 to the end of the year of the fifteenth birthday. From a retention point of view, this amendment had important implications. With children generally attending school in the year in which they turn six, most were now obliged to complete ten years of schooling—seven primary and three secondary. To students whose birthday falls early in the year this meant an additional two years of compulsory education, from the day of their fourteenth birthday to the end of the following year.

Population growth. Table 3.8 gives an indication of the increasing rate of growth of the population in Western Australia during the last forty years, including the very significant contribution of the immigration programme. It is obvious that such rapid population growth has been a major factor in the pressures for expansion of the education system.

TABLE 3.8

POPULATION GROWTH IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA, 1920–1970

Years	Total Increase	Due to migration	Percent due to migration
1920–1930	100,287	50,558	50·41
1930–1940	42,466	—1,456	—03·43
1940–1950	98,573	31,931	32·39
1950–1960	158,384	49,085	30·99
1960–1970	280,230	153,733	54·86

Increase in demand for secondary education. Table 3.7 shows that in the past fifty years there has been an increase in excess of 250 per cent in the numbers of children enrolled in Government schools in Western Australia, but that secondary enrolments have grown at a much faster rate than primary. In the period 1920-1970, primary school enrolments increased by 186 per cent whereas secondary school enrolments increased by 916 per cent. This greater growth rate in secondary enrolments reflects the changing economic conditions within the State, including the remarkable technological progress that has occurred in recent years, and the realization on the part of students and parents that a high correlation exists between levels of education attained and future earnings. Education is seen by many, particularly those in lower and middle socio-economic groups, as a powerful means of attaining upward social mobility. Governments, too, have recognized the value to economic growth of an educated workforce, and have increased the provision of scholarships, grants and subsidies at State and national levels.

THE REPORTS OF COMMITTEES OF ENQUIRY

In the past twenty years there have been four significant committees of enquiry into secondary education in Western Australia. The reports and recommendations of these committees have had the effect of radically altering the character and direction of secondary education in this State.

The Committee on Secondary Education (1952-54)

The first of the committees of enquiry under the chairmanship of the Superintendent of Secondary Education, Mr V. Box, met at a time when secondary education "was on the verge of a tremendous expansion, not only as a consequence of the post-war 'population explosion', but also because of a rapidly changing social structure, characterized by a technological advance hitherto unknown in this State". This committee made eleven recommendations, some of which were to have far reaching effects upon the operation of secondary education in this State.

The Secondary Schools Curriculum Committee (1957-58)

This committee under the chairmanship of Dr T. L. Robertson issued a report which was "an attempt to outline the general aims and areas which the Committee feels should form the basis of a secondary schools curriculum programme in this State". This Committee was concerned only with the "basic requirements of secondary pupils in the upper 85 per cent of the ability range of the school population", and it recommended that a special investigation be carried out into the needs of the lower 15 per cent.

This report is significant in that it foreshadowed much of what was to emerge in later years. It proposed such matters as core and elective subjects, varying student progress, units of work, streaming and cumulative assessment.

The Committee of Enquiry into Secondary Education (1962-63)

This committee, also under the chairmanship of Dr T. L. Robertson, reviewed the progress made in secondary education from the 1954 Report. It noted that six of the eleven recommendations made in that report had been implemented. All of these have significance for the present report:

(1) That children completing the primary course transfer to high schools if possible; and that, in addition, all children who have not qualified by completing the primary course and whose thirteenth birthday occurs during the year be transferred to high school, irrespective of attainment, so that they may have the advantage of a secondary school environment before they leave school.

(2) That in the metropolitan area high schools be co-educational and comprehensive in type with enrolments of 1,500 plus.

(3) That, in the country, high schools be co-educational and multilateral in type.

(4) That secondary school scholarships be abolished.

(5) That all new metropolitan high schools be situated in the outer suburbs.

(6) That high schools near city, Fremantle and Midland Junction business centres be removed to the suburbs as soon as possible.

In addition to a review of the recommendations made in the 1954 Report, the committee also made recommendations regarding the future direction that secondary education should take in Western Australia. Most of the recommendations set the stage for the future development of the Achievement Certificate, but what is of particular interest to this present Discipline Committee was the re-affirmation of the principle of a secondary education for all children regardless of ability.

With the publishing of the 1954 Report, the principle of a secondary education for all children was firmly established. With the removal of the secondary school scholarship the last vestige of selective entry into high schools was abolished. Thus, in a space of several decades, secondary education in Western Australia had changed from a highly selective and "elitist" education in which academic considerations dominated to a non-selective general education for all children. The provision of some secondary education for all children was strengthened by the raising of the school leaving age in 1964 to the end of the year in which a child attained the age of fifteen years.

The extension of the school leaving age was in keeping with the new philosophy of secondary education expressed within the reports of the various committees but it placed demands upon the system to provide a range of courses suited to the needs of a much wider range of abilities and interests than had been the case in the pre-war years. Students who, because of problems relating to motivation, achievement, economic circumstances or other factors, previously would have left at the end of primary or the first year of high school were now required to remain until at least the end of the second and probably the third year of high school. The extension also placed organizational and administrative demands upon secondary schools because they were now required to accept some students who were unable to benefit from most available courses at a secondary level, and many others for whom courses of an academic nature were unsuited. The effects of non-selective entry and increased school leaving age were indeed far reaching. Their effects are still being felt in curriculum, in administration, in school organization, in teacher attitude and indeed in all areas of secondary schooling.

The changes that had been effected in the post World War II years with regard to entry and school leaving age, and the change in philosophy that occurred as the result of the recommendations of various committees investigating secondary education, necessitated a complete re-thinking of the structure of secondary education in Western Australia. This re-thinking was to take place through the deliberations of the Dettman Committee.

The Dettman Report (1967-69)

The recent course of secondary education in Western Australia has been charted by the recommendations of the Dettman Report. In 1967, on the advice of the Director-General of Education, the then Minister for Education (the Hon. E. H. M. Lewis) set up a committee to investigate and report on the future of secondary education in Western Australia. This committee, which was under the chairmanship of Mr H. W. Dettman (Director-General of Education) came to be known as the Committee on Secondary Education. In its membership were representatives from non-Government schools, Catholic Education, the University of Western Australia and the Education Department. The following broad statement set down by the Minister constituted the terms of reference:

> To investigate developments elsewhere, assess the needs of Western Australia and, in due course, report on the future organization, structure and courses required to meet those needs, and to make recommendations.

The recommendations of the Dettman Report cover almost every aspect of the operation of secondary schools. Basically they may be divided into those which relate to structure and those which relate to educational principle and practice.

Recommendations relating to structure. The recommendations of the Box Report (1954) had brought about considerable change in the operation and structure of secondary schools in Western Australia. Important within this was the policy of secondary education for all children without regard to selectivity and the transfer to high school at age twelve plus. The Dettman Report reaffirmed these principles and extended them by adding recommendations that would de-emphasize a preoccupation in secondary school with purely academic matters. Foremost among its recommendations was the removal of external examinations (the Junior and Leaving Certificates) and their replacement by internal school assessment. Certificates of secondary education based on these internal assessments would be issued by a Board of Secondary Education which would exercise a general overview of the secondary curriculum and ensure comparability of standards between schools by the use of moderators and the application of standardized tests.

The committee saw the need to provide students with a broad, general education and accepted the principle of having both core and elective subjects which was a characteristic of the continuing Achievement Certificate pilot project initiated by the Department in 1968. The practice of streaming, or grouping of students according to general ability, was considered to be educationally unacceptable and in its place the committee recommended the adoption of a multi-level approach for the core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies and a unit progress approach in the case of elective subjects. In order to achieve this approach in schools they suggested the use of the administrative devices of cross setting and group teaching.

Other measures relating to structure suggested in the report related to special provisions for gifted and handicapped students, the adoption of the principle of chronological promotion with a primary/secondary transfer at age twelve plus, the provision of financial assistance for those in remote areas and the provision of adequate teaching resources and facilities.

Recommendations relating to principles and practice. The belief that the teacher was the dispenser of knowledge and that the child's role in learning was a passive one tended to dominate thinking in secondary education in Western Australia in the period before World War II. In the post-war period, the need for variety in approach and content in secondary education was recognized and the role of the teacher in the teaching/learning situation was the subject of considerable professional debate. The Dettman Report, referring to the instructional process, stated:

> We envisage considerable changes in the role of the teacher. He should become less the dispenser of information and more a person who structures learning situations and guides learning activities.

The adoption of this attitude, while consistent with developments that had occurred in knowledge about the way in which children learn, was also due to a recognition of the need to make provision within the teaching/learning situation for variety among student abilities and attainments. It may also be seen to bear a close relationship to the belief inherent in the report that each child should receive the maximum possible amount of education both from the point of view of personal development and from that of contributing to the improvement of society as a whole.

The report expressed the belief that secondary schools freed from the restraints of external examinations should "be able to concentrate on the broad aims of education directed towards the promotion of each student's intellectual development, integration into society, physical and mental health, economic competence and emotional and spiritual growth". Consistent with these aims was the belief that a greater measure of "self responsibility" should be given to students and that in the learning situation creativity should be fostered by allowing students "freedom to exercise some independence and originality".

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The recommendations of the Dettman Report have guided recent developments in secondary education in Western Australia, the two most significant features of which have been the establishment of the Board of Secondary Education and the implementation of the Achievement Certificate, with its internal assessment and multilevel approach to the study of core subjects.

The Board of Secondary Education

Following the recommendations contained within the Report, a Board of Secondary Education was established in 1969. This Board, which is under the direction of a full-time director, consists of nineteen members. They include representatives of the Education Department, non Government secondary schools, the University of Western Australia, the Western Australian Institute of Technology, the Western Australian State School Teachers' Union and members of the general community.

The Board of Secondary Education is responsible for the issuing of a certificate known as the Achievement Certificate. This is usually awarded at the end of the third year of high school. It is issued on the basis of school assessments and, in order to ensure comparability of standards between schools, the following methods of moderation are adopted:

(1) The comparison of student work and discussion of assessment procedures by teachers at regional meetings.

(2) The employment of moderators to visit schools to compare standards of work and school assessments.

(3) The application of comparability tests by which schools may check the distribution of students within the various levels of the core subjects.

The Achievement Certificate

The Achievement Certificate issued by the Board of Secondary Education records student achievement over three years and not merely performance in a single "one shot" examination as was the case with the externally examined Junior Certificate. Provision is made on all Certificates for assessments in the core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies. Each of these subjects is studied for about six periods per week for each of the three years. The level (see below) at which each of these is studied is also recorded. Within each of these, a pass or a pass with credit may be awarded. The Board may, if it so wishes, refuse to grant an award for any subject. Other assessed subjects are shown in units representing the study of a subject for two periods per week for a year or its equivalent. As in the case of core subjects the two grades of pass may be given. Other courses of study which the school considers desirable not to assess are listed separately by years but are not shown in units.

Levels of assessment. The core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies have levels of assessment. In English, science and social studies there are three levels—Advanced, Intermediate and Basic. The distribution of students within these levels approximates 25 per cent at Advanced, 50 per cent at Intermediate and 25 per cent at Basic. In mathematics there are four levels of assessment—Advanced, Ordinary, Elementary and Basic. Approximately one quarter of an age group qualifies for each of these levels. In foreign languages, two levels are established with approximately half of the students qualifying for the upper level and half for the elementary level. As indicated above the grades of credit pass and pass may be granted at each level.

Approval of courses. Schools have a large degree of freedom in the selection of courses for the Achievement Certificate and no prescription of textbooks or of syllabuses is undertaken by the Board. The Board must, however, approve courses before they may appear on the Achievement Certificate.

Movement of students between levels. The provision for changing levels in the core subjects is an integral part of the Achievement Certificate scheme, although transfer in an upward direction becomes difficult in the subjects of science and mathematics after the first term of the second year. Recommendations for movement between levels are made as a result of a process of continual assessment using a number of measures over a period of time. Difficulty of upward transfer between levels has been recognized by the provision of short-term adjustment classes, which, through intensive instruction, bring students to a level of achievement that facilitates their location within the new level.

Administrative organization of high schools. An important consequence of the adoption of a multi-level approach to the structure of core subject courses has been the need to adopt cross setting procedures within secondary schools.

This approach together with the provision of a wide range of elective subjects has been facilitated in some ways by an earlier decision of the Box Committee to adopt a policy of establishing schools with enrolments of 1,500 plus.

Provision of courses and curriculum materials. Under the Achievement Certificate there has been a significant increase in the availability of courses in secondary schools in the State. In addition to the four core subjects with their various levels, students must take the required subjects of health education, human relations, library resources, physical education and speech. In the first year, the subjects of art/crafts, drawing, home economics (girls), manual arts (boys) and music serve as an introduction to the optional subjects available in the second and third years. Generally these subjects are taken by all students and each course is subject to assessment within the school. In the second and third years of the Achievement Certificate scheme, schools offer a wide variety of opitional subjects from which a student may choose. No school can offer all options, the range for each school being determined by its facilities and staffing and by the needs of the students in that school. At present in excess of fifty optional subjects are offered throughout the State.

The rapid increase that occurred in the numbers and levels of courses offered in secondary schools initially outstripped the availability of text and specific reference materials avialable. To meet this need the Curriculum Branch of the Education Department has provided student and teacher materials for all subjects. At the time of the introduction of the present Achievement Certificate in 1969, the only subject for which some texts were available was mathematics.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

While reports from teachers, administrators and the lay public have expressed concern over incidents of student indiscipline, there is little empirical evidence to suggest the nature or extent of disciplinary problems in secondary schools in this State. The Committee, therefore, considered it essential to carry out a series of research projects to determine the precise nature of the problem with which it was confronted.

INSTRUMENTATION

In order to determine the nature, extent, and contributing factors of indiscipline in secondary schools, five main surveys were initiated on behalf of the Committee by the Research and Planning Branch of the Education Department. Copies of the research instruments are shown in Appendixes 1-5.

Teacher Questionnaire

The most urgent information required by the Committee related to the *nature* of the problem: Is there a discipline problem in schools? If so, how serious is the problem? Where is the problem located? What are the characteristics of the teachers who find discipline a serious problem when they teach? With what students do control problems become most acute? In what behavioural forms is the indiscipline manifested?

Until some answer was found to these fundamental questions, the deliberations of the Committee were necessarily guided by supposition. Accordingly all secondary teachers in the State were given an opportunity to complete the Teacher Questionnaire as part of the first phase of the Committee's investigation.

The Teacher Questionnaire contained the following items:

(1) Twenty-two biographical and situationally descriptive items about the characteristics of the school, the teachers and the potentially disruptive student.

(2) Twenty-eight situations in which the respondents (the teachers) rated potentially disruptive behaviours according to their frequency, seriousness and troublesomeness.

The Questionnaire also contained a section reserved for the teachers' written comments.

School Administrator Questionnaire

Questionnaires were sent to the populations of high school principals, deputy principals and principal mistresses. The School Administrator Questionnaire consisted of separate sections to be completed by each of the above persons, and some sections to be filled in by all three administrators in consultation.

The questionnaire sought to ascertain:

(1) Those characteristics of school administration and organization which had relevance to an understanding of disciplinary problems. The Questionnaire dealt with such matters as the role of student councils, prefects, characteristics of teachers with disciplinary problems, and other matters.

(2) The perceptions of principals regarding the nature, extent and causes of discipline problems.

(3) Measures adopted by schools to counter discipline problems, and recommendations on remedial measures required in Government secondary schools generally. Space was left for written comments on any items not raised in the Questionnaire but which administrators considered could have bearing on the question of discipline.

Student Questionnaire

The Student Questionnaire was sent to a 10 per cent random sample of students in all high schools in the State. In constructing the instrument, it was recognized that the student was influenced by three types of educational environment —the home, the school and the peer group. Within these environments, Keeves (1972) identified three important dimensions—structure, attitude and process—that provided a guideline for selecting items to compose the Student Questionnaire.

The structural dimension was measured by including items relating to the occupational status of parents, size of family, size of school, and other structural variables. The attitudinal dimension is characterized by the objectives, attitudes, and expectations held by the students in the home, the school or peer groups. Items relating to the student's educational aspirations and his attitude towards punishment and authority, tap this dimension.

The process dimension is represented by items which elicit, for example, the manner in which a student interacts with parents or reacts to an imposed discipline. If questionnaires are to serve more than a descriptive function and are to realize some explanatory purpose, then it is important that the process, or the way students interact in their environments, is explicated.

In broad terms, the following outcomes were sought:

(1) An understanding of student interests and opinions regarding school activities.

(2) An insight into the student view of disciplinary matters.

(3) An appreciation of the relationship of home background, peer group factors and certain school environment factors with maladaptive school behaviour.

Parent Questionnaire

The appreciation that parents play a significant role in the formal education of their children at school prompted the Committee to survey parental attitudes towards selected facts of school operation, particularly those pertaining to disciplinary matters. Apart from providing certain biographical detail about respondents, questionnaire items centred around the major issues of (i) parental opinion about the current state of school discipline, (ii) corporal punishment and suspension, (iii) authority of the principal, (iv) parental involvement in school decision making, (v) school uniforms, (vi) parent-school communication and (vii) curriculum.

Case studies of deviant student behaviour

To gain some idea of the types of extreme indiscipline being encountered in high schools guidance officers currently employed in these schools were asked to identify students who were considered to be most troublesome to teachers and administrators in their school behaviour. Departmental guidance officers were asked to compile structured profiles of these students regarding their home background, academic potential and other related matters.

In particular, the structured section of the case study report contained fifty-four questions relating to

(1) School characteristics.
(2) Subject identification.
(3) Family background.
(4) Personal characteristics.
(5) Schooling characteristics.
(6) Nature of behaviour.

The seventh section was reserved for general comments on school history, home conditions, behaviour and treatment in the home environment, leisure activities, relationships with particular staff members, guidance history, remedial measures adopted and relationships with other students.

A secondary purpose of the case study programme was a methodological one. It was anticipated that the direct person to person interviewing between guidance officer and deviant student and the possibility of probing in depth the leads uncovered by interviewing, would provide insights that might be lacking from the more impersonal questionnaire technique.

Apart from providing an overview of extreme deviance, the case studies sought to identify common traits among these students which could form the basis of remedial programmes or services designed to assist such children.

SAMPLING AND ADMINISTRATION

The Teacher Questionnaire

Sampling procedures. All secondary teachers (including teachers of secondary students in junior high schools) were invited to complete the Teacher Questionnaire. Of this population of teachers, 2,268 (75 per cent) responded. Non-response was due to the failure of complete school staffs to return questionnaires and teachers within schools who chose not to respond. The former category made up 9.1 per cent of the total secondary teaching staff while the latter category comprised 16.0 per cent. The majority of non-respondents falling in the former category were staff members of country schools; the urgency with which the Committee required this initial information precluded extending the deadline for beginning the data processing. A large number of questionnaires from this group were received after the deadline.

The net effect of the non-response of a quarter of the secondary teaching staff is not easy to assess. Consultation with various teachers does suggest that those who did not submit questionnaires were not from any particular sector of teacher opinion. Presumably those with strong feelings about discipline in schools would have advised the Committee of their feelings, given this formal opportunity to do so. The omission of a disproportionate number of country teachers does not seem likely to have seriously biased the findings related to discipline. Analysis of completed questionnaires did not reveal any substantial differences between attitudes of country and metropolitan teachers. It would seem likely that the 75 per cent response has provided, for the purpose of this study, adequate coverage of the opinions of secondary teachers.

Administration characteristics. In order to encourage frankness of response, teachers did not reveal their identity in the Questionnaire. In addition, a special administrative procedure was employed. Principals were asked to delegate the responsibility for administering the Questionnaire to a staff member. Instructions to principals regarding this matter read:

> Teachers on your staff are asked to respond to the items as frankly as possible. The anonymity of their responses will be ensured. In order

> to encourage teachers to respond accurately and as independently as possible it is suggested that the responsibility for distributing and collecting the questionnaires be given to a member of the teaching staff. The Committee hopes for a complete response from schools so that your co-operation in encouraging and overseeing the administration of the questionnaire will be most appreciated.

The Administrator Questionnaire

Administrator Questionnaires were returned from 54 of the 56 high schools. Within the single questionnaire, one for each school, were sections reserved for principals, deputy principals and principal mistresses. The compilation of these separate sections into a single booklet permitted the matching of the views of administrators from the same school. It was felt, for example, that within the ambit of his role as deputy principal this administrator would have at his disposal certain information not readily available to the principal. Instructions to this effect were provided to principals as follows:

> In order to facilitate the administration and analysis of the questionnaires, separate sections have been set aside for completion by the principal, the deputy principal and principal mistress. The sections to be completed by each person are clearly detailed on the front of the Questionnaire. Please note that sections D and E are to be completed by the principal in *consultation* with the deputy principal and first mistress. Should there be any disagreement over any responses, please set out the reasons in the sections reserved for comment at the back of the Questionnaire.

The Committee recognized that administrators within the one school may have different views about the degree of indiscipline within the school and about the most effective means of dealing with the problem. Several administrators commented that they felt somewhat constrained because their colleagues had access to the same questionnaire in which other personal opinions were contained. In a similar vein it was commented that in at least one school where the administrators were asked to discuss matters in consultation, disagreement between deputies and principals was always resolved by the principal exercising "a casting vote". In most cases, judging from the comments included in the questionnaires, the school administrators responded without any apparent inhibition.

The Student Questionnaire

Drawing the sample. The Committee was very conscious of the need to ensure that opinions expressed in the Student Questionnaire were highly representative of student viewpoints in general. To effect this representation, a stratified random sample of approximately ten per cent of the total enrolment was selected in each high school.

Schools were notified of the number of students required from the enrolment in each year level. The methods to be adopted for drawing this sample were described in considerable detail and every effort was made to prevent the intrusion of any systematic bias into the sampling procedure. The instructions to principals regarding this matter read:

> Several alternative sampling procedures may be used to determine which particular students participate. The essential characteristic of any method is that each student in each year level should have an equal opportunity of being selected. No student should be selected by the following methods and then discarded for some other reason, unless the student is absent from school. If the latter instance should happen then another student should be randomly selected to take his place.
>
> The alternative procedures for sampling are
>
> (A) If student record cards are kept in a completely alphabetical or random order (this excludes situations where record cards are kept by class groupings or where the composition of the class is based on ability, options, or some non-haphazard matter), then every *n*th student from each year level may be selected, e.g. if there are 250 first year students and 28 first year students are to be selected, then every 10th student in the list could be selected, giving 25 students and the remaining three students made up by selecting a further three (perhaps the 11th, 21st and 31st students).
> Where separate male and female lists are kept, the above procedures may be used. In this case make sure that the proportion of boys to girls in the sample is the same as the proportion in the total year group.
>
> (B) If student record cards are kept in some systematic order (for example, by class or ability grouping) then a table of random numbers should be used. Instructions for using the table of random numbers are enclosed. Though this procedure is somewhat cumbersome, it is necessary to ensure randomness and representativeness.

Schools were supplied with tables of random numbers.

Questionnaire administration conditions. It was considered important that no constraints were placed upon students when completing the Questionnaire. If students felt that their responses were under surveillance, the likelihood of their giving socially desirable responses to contentious items would be drastically increased. For this reason, students were not required to append their names to questionnaires although, for further follow-up research purposes, advantages would have accrued had the identification of respondents been possible. It should be noted that the decision to preserve anonymity of students has not usually been taken in other surveys of this nature (Coleman, 1961; Andersson, 1969). The instructions issued to principals regarding this and other pertinent matters are shown on the following page.

(1) It is important that no constraints are placed on students to answer any item in the Questionnaire. For this reason, the students' names are not to appear on the Questionnaire nor are the students' responses to be read by any member of the school staff.

(2) In order to promote frank responses from students, as far as possible, the administration of the Questionnaire should be left in the hands of responsible senior students (student council members who have not been selected to complete the Questionnaire, for example). School staff members should play as minimal a supervisory role as possible yet maintain a reasonable testing atmosphere. The teacher should only intervene if students are talking among each other or breaching conventional classroom codes of behaviour.

(3) Some parts of the Questionnaire are unavoidably complex. Less able readers and younger students may have difficulty completing these parts. Senior students (or staff members, if called upon) should act as consultants when called upon to explain any aspect of the Questionnaire. They should be careful not to prejudice any answer from students asking for assistance. Please make clear to all students that this assistance will be forthcoming if sought.

(4) The Questionnaire is divided into two parts. Part One takes about 30 minutes for the slower student to complete, while Part Two takes about 75 minutes. It is probably necessary that students be given a break after completing Part One. Ideally, students could leave their questionnaires on their desks and return after an interval of time. Time-tabling exigencies may preclude this procedure from being adopted. If this is so then students should note the code number on the cover of each booklet and the senior students supervise the collection of questionnaires.

(5) The contents of the Questionnaire are confidential, and all booklets must be returned.

(6) Senior students should bundle and seal all completed questionnaires. The single page enclosed with the questionnaires should be completed by the principal or deputy principal and attached to the bundle of questionnaires. The package should then be sealed.

Noteworthy among the instructions above is the requirement that senior school students be responsible for the questionnaire's administration. This instruction was designed to build up a responsible climate during the administration. Comments from school administrators and the quality of student responses indicate that this was achieved. Of more than 5,000 questionnaires returned, only three showed signs of deliberate non-compliance with instructions by erratic completion of items or puerile comment. These questionnaires were discarded.

In all, 5,062 questionnaires from fifty-five high schools were returned for analysis. This number represents an almost perfect response rate.

The Parent Questionnaire

Parents were sampled according to procedures almost identical to those that governed the selection of respondents to the Student Questionnaire. Since the primary purpose of the Questionnaire was to provide a total picture, rather than a school-by-school picture of parent attitudes, a sample of parents based on approximately 3 per cent of students was selected. Sampling was stratified according to school and year level. Within each stratum, the selection of parents was either purely random according to a table of random numbers, or effectively random according to the systematic selection of every *n*th student from the alphabetical arrangement of school record cards.

Questionnaires were sent to schools which arranged for their despatch to the homes of the parents of students who had been selected according to the procedures described above. The completed booklets were returned in sealed envelopes to the school or posted directly to the Education Department Research Branch.

The response rate from parents was extremely high. Of the 1,655 questionnaires despatched, 1,512 were returned satisfactorily completed. School by school, the response rate from parents ranged from 66.7 per cent to 100 per cent return.

Several special arrangements were necessary for administration of the Parent Questionnaire.

Principals were advised that should brothers or sisters by chance be included in the sample, then only one questionnaire should be sent to the household. In this instance an additional family should then be included in the sample.

The second difficulty arose in the case of parents with more than one student at high school. Many of the pertinent questions which the Committee was anxious to raise dealt with the attitude of the parents towards some aspect of the functioning of the school. It was realized that parents who have several children at school, probably at different year levels and pursuing different courses, may have disparate attitudes depending on which child is considered. To overcome this problem, parents were advised by letter to consider only one child in the family, namely, the child who brings the Questionnaire home from school. Instructions regarding this matter were outlined in an accompanying letter to parents:

> Some parents may have more than one child in high school. You may have different views about the type of education each child is receiving. To make it easier for you to fill in this questionnaire consider only the child who brings the Questionnaire home from school. Each question then relates to what happens to this particular child in your family. If you have some views about the type of secondary education being received by other children in your family you may write these down at the end of the Questionnaire in the section reserved for your

> comments. Should the child be living with a guardian then the guardian may fill in the Questionnaire on behalf of the parent.

A final factor complicating administration of the Questionnaire was the possibility that within a family, parents held opposite views on the education of their child. Provision was made for only one of the parents to complete the Questionnaire. No watertight solution was found to this problem. The most reasonable compromise seemed to be to instruct parents as follows:

> The Questionnaire may be filled in by either parent. The parent who fills in the Questionnaire should try to see that the views expressed are shared by the other parent.

These special administrative arrangements, coupled with the fact that parents were not asked to identify themselves on the Questionnaire and were guaranteed the anonymity of their responses, seem to have eliminated the more serious sources of bias that were likely to confound the research findings.

The case studies

Selection procedures. Assistance with this phase of the Committee's research programme was received from officers of the Guidance and Special Education Branch. Officers from this Branch assisted with preliminary planning and supervised the interviewing and collection of data in the field.

An initial concern was to ensure that the cases selected in the sample were representative of the extremely deviant students. To achieve this end certain criteria were laid down to clarify and standardize selection procedures. Firstly, guidance officers were asked to select students in consultation with other administrative staff and teachers in order that no personal prejudice should bias the selection of a student for case study. In addition instructions to guidance officers in the field were circulated and discussed among metropolitan senior and district guidance officers. These read:

> It should be emphasized that your initial selection of the *disruptive* students is of crucial importance. The subjects for the case study are those students who are causing teachers and school administrators the most severe problems with their behaviour. Unless the students' out-of-school activities intrude and substantially interfere with the running of the school then they should not play a part in the selection of the subjects. Students judged "juvenile delinquents" by a court of law, if they are relatively well behaved at school, should not be selected for this study. Thus the students chosen may be from any year group, be of either sex, of any age, and so on. The one characteristic that they must have in common is that the school staff members as a whole are in agreement that the student is most difficult to deal with. Persistent misbehaviour ought to be another common characteristic of the student. In general, an isolated misbehaviour on the part of the student ought not to qualify a student for selection in the case studies.

In view of the above procedures it would be reasonable to assume that the sample obtained was representative of the population of children who exhibit extremely deviant behaviour in Western Australian secondary schools. Seventy-three case study reports from twenty-eight high schools were returned for analysis. It should be noted that one country senior high school returned the case study report forms noting that it had no extremely deviant students in its school population.

The anonymity of each student involved in the case study was always maintained by the guidance officers, each case study report being identified by a code number only.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

The paucity of theory relating to discipline allowed the formulation of only rudimentary hypotheses regarding the cause of maladaptive school behaviour. The questionnaires were therefore deliberately designed to "cast a wide net". This approach meant that a number of relevant constructs were of necessity operationalized by single items. Where possible, multiple measures of constructs were obtained, though rarely were more than two data indicators used, for the length of questionnaires had to be kept within reasonable bounds. Important student characteristics, such as the degree to which students were discipline problems, were multiple-operationalized. Regarding this variable students were asked (i) how frequently they were punished and by what means; (ii) how frequently they were sent to the deputy headmaster or principal mistress for the purpose of punishment; and (iii) whether they were regarded as troublemakers in the school.

A variety of statistical procedures has been utilized to handle the data from the various questionnaires, although, in most cases, cross tabulations of data have been used to report relationships between variables. The primary aim in reporting the results of the data-processing has been to display the evidence as simply yet as comprehensively as possible.

Interpreting the data

The cross sectional nature of the surveys. Ideally, a researcher would establish the reliability of the instruments and the stability or change of attitudes by readministering the questionnaires (or similar questionnaires) to the same group of respondents at different points in time. The length of the time interval would depend on the particular purpose for which the questionnaire was being readministered. One-shot, or cross-sectional, surveys must face the possibility that the conditions or timing of the single administration of the questionnaires have an important bearing on the manner of student response.

The questionnaires were all administered to teachers, students and parents towards the end of the first term of the school year. It is possible that the responses of students made at that point of time may not be identical with those which would be given towards the very end of the school year. Pressures in schools are often cumulative. By November, the novelty of the course work has worn off and the beckoning summer vacation is a pleasantly distracting influence upon students. Twenty-two per cent of school administrators identified the end of the school year a more potentially disruptive period versus only one per cent of administrators who opted for the beginning of the year. The net influence of the timing of the Committee's investigation is likely to produce a picture of school life more satisfying and favourable than if the questionnaires had been administered towards the end of the school year.

A force which may have operated in the opposite direction is associated with the publicity given to school discipline both prior to and during the survey administration. It is conceivable that teachers, students and parents have been influenced by newspaper reports that discipline *was* a problem in schools and answered on the basis of this publicized expectation rather than on the basis of their own experiences. Further, the knowledge that they were participating in an investigation into high school discipline may have led respondents to view matters in terms of influencing the Committee rather than in terms of the events as they are actually perceived.

Testing for statistical significance. Tests of significance are not reported in the treatment of the data. The reasons are severalfold.

The usual purpose of a statistical test of significance is to provide some measure of the precision of a description of a population when the account is based on a sample drawn from the population.

For example, a "chi square" test could be applied to many of the tables in this report to ascertain the degree of caution required in concluding that the pattern of responses obtained from the sample (of students) is a true representation of the pattern that would be obtained from the whole population (of students). However, when a sizable unbiased proportion of the population is represented in the sample, then the likelihood of drawing false inferences about the population from the sample data is fairly remote.

Another reason for not reporting the results of significance is to avoid the confusion of interpretation, particularly among lay readers, that is generated by the word "significance". Tests of significance are based on the statistical properties of the data. Yet, the researcher is obliged to make statements about the data in substantive terms. The test of statistical significance may have little bearing on the importance that one attaches to the outcome of the test. It is quite conceivable that statistically significant differences between proportions of responses are of such a small magnitude as to be of little real importance to school administrators. To know that the difference between male and female student responses to a question relating to school councils is statistically significant does not necessarily imply that the difference is sufficiently important to warrant some administrative action. The test merely indicates that the difference in responses from male and female students in the sample which completed the Questionnaire would be *likely* to occur also in the total Western Australian high school population from which the sample was drawn.

Interpretation is further complicated by the nature of the data. The measurements obtained were basically at a nominal level. Relationships are statistically described in two-dimensional contingency tables with as many categories along each dimension as there are response categories in the related questionnaire items. The significant chi square value demonstrates only that in one or more cells of the contingency table the observed frequency of responses differs from what would be expected in a condition of *no relationship* between the variables represented in the two-dimensions; and further, that the difference is sufficiently large to justify a belief that the same *pattern* of responses would occur in the population from which the survey sample was taken. The table itself must be inspected to ascertain in which cells and in what direction the difference occurs.

Kish (1959), while critical of the viewpoint that tests of significance are inapplicable in survey research unless all relevant uncontrolled variables have been taken into account, is aware of the mistakes that accrue from their automatic calculation. As already pointed out, statistical "significance" is easily confused with substantive importance. Also, where one has used a blanket approach in attempting to cover as many important variables as possible (as in this enquiry), there is a greater possibility of spuriously finding significant an improbable random effect. There is a danger in educational research that the execution of a test of significance will be regarded as the ultimate objective.

Finally, statistical testing is prone to focusing the attention of readers on differences between population values. It is inclined to mislead readers that differences are of major importance when very often it is just as important to show that no differences exist. Thus, it may be of equal interest to detect similarities in attitude between maladaptive students and the general student body as it is to detect differences—a point of view easily overlooked in survey research.

For these reasons, the conclusions in the report have been based on the consistency of the data and the patterns of differences (or similarities) which may appear. The plausibility of the results has also been judged against other information on the subject and previous research findings cited in the literature. This approach is consistent with that adopted by Coleman (1961) and Andersson (1969), who constructed similar large-scale surveys of adolescent attitudes.

Multi-dimensionality of attitudes. The attitudes which students hold towards the various facets of their school experience may be classified into a number of dimensions. Obviously they may differ in their content, direction, and intensity. However, the important dimensions such as saliency, consistency, stability and clarity are often either overlooked or else compounded into the general attitudinal construct.

A typical statement of student attitude might read, "The student held a strong positive attitude towards school." This statement indicates the content, direction and intensity of the feeling. However, the statement does not reveal how important school is to the student, how consistently he takes this stance, or how unambiguous his attitude is in view of his feelings about other aspects of his education. It is tempting to read these nuances into the interpretation of the data when, in fact, they do not legitimately belong there. The stem of each questionnaire item ought to establish clearly in which terms the attitude is to be described.

Over-emphasizing differences in questionnaire responses. It follows from the preceding discussion that, owing to the large and representative samples employed in this study, a difference of a few per cent between the cells of a contingency table indicates that a difference is likely to occur in the population with respect to measures of that particular variable. Relatively small differences between groups in their responses to particular questionnaire items may allow statements suggesting the presence of a relationship between questionnaire response and group membership. If 20 per cent of Basic level students registered disapproval with curriculum compared with 10 per cent of Advanced level students, then a relationship between achievement level and attitude towards curriculum might be said to exist. However, while accurate, a statement such as this may be misinterpreted if the fact that 80 per cent of Basic students expressed approval of the curriculum is ignored. Both the demonstration of an association between variables and the response totals are pieces of information that must jointly be taken into account if a proper understanding of the data is to be achieved.

Perceptions of the school. Aggregating teacher, student, or parent opinion does not establish any absolute truth. The fact that a majority of parents support the appointment of medical officers to high schools does not establish the need of high schools for such support services, though this need may well exist. More comprehensive and objective measures are needed to investigate such matters as need, and cause and effect. Further, public belief and private behaviour may be discrepant. Feldman (1971) notes that items in questionnaires which ask for a respondent's perception of aggregative characteristics of, say, the student body do not produce the same results as items which require responses about the respondent's own feelings and attitudes, which could then be aggregated to produce a picture of the school environment. In the first instance, the items may merely be measuring rumours, respondent wish-fulfilment or stereotyping. Both types of item are included in the questionnaires.

The sampling of opinions and perceptions is, however, of value when considering changes to the education system for the purpose of improving school discipline. The feeling among members of the school community is an important factor in determining the success of any administrative or organizational innovation.

Surveys versus experiments. The survey is not an ideal procedure for disentangling causal relationships since it is essentially *ex post facto*. The factors that *produce* indiscipline have already occurred before observation and measurement of the phenomenon can take place. Second, there is no assurance that the groups of students identified as discipline problems and the group of well-adjusted students are equal in all relevant respects prior to operation of the independent variables (the anticipated factors causing indiscipline). Studies of indiscipline are not easily staged in the laboratory situation where the effects of extraneous causal influences are effectively controlled and where inferences about causal relations can be made by comparing units that have received a manipulation at a given time with those that have not. Campbell and Stanley (1966) outline the traditional experimental approach to testing structural models. However, even the laboratory-controlled experiment cannot *prove* causality, in the sense that it leaves no room for doubt.

On the other hand, surveys do have the advantage of dealing with causality in its natural setting. The isolation of extraneous sources of variation in the experiment may, in fact, engender a degree of artificiality in the findings. In the real world a network of competing independent variables influences human behaviour. It seems unlikely that the nature of discipline could be adequately understood in a contrived and controlled experimental situation where single factors were manipulated one at a time.

The Committee's recommendations regarding school discipline are likely to be more effective if the causal factors influencing the quality of relationship between teacher and student have been identified. Without some form of empirical evidence, discussions of causation are largely speculative yet even careful and systematic observation and measurement of factors associated with discipline are unlikely to prove that a particular factor causes indiscipline. Simon (1957) succinctly defines this problem when he writes that "necessary connections cannot be perceived and hence have no empirical basis . . . Observation reveals only recurring association".

Hence, causality is only indirectly testable, even in the most carefully contrived investigation of human behaviour; yet, most persons in the community are prepared to give their view of what actually causes school discipline problems. Parents and teachers proposed a conglomerate of causes in their comments about discipline, very often in dogmatic terms. Some parents blamed teachers, some teachers blamed parents. School principals often blamed both. In fact, statements such as these, framed in unequivocal terms, are usually over-simplifications of a very complex question. Unanimity of opinion is not a pre-condition for inferring causality.

The problem of identifying causes of deviant school behaviour

At the heart of most misinterpretations of causality is the misconception that, when two variables are associated, one must necessarily cause the other. In fact, there may be no inherent "link" between the two variables, but simply a common association with a third variable. For example, student dress and appearance is quoted as a cause of indiscipline, a proposition based on the observation that many serious offenders are untidily or oddly dressed. The cause may, in fact, emanate from a number of antecedent or extraneous sources. The dress may reflect the student's home background conditions, family affluence, parental attitudes and a host of other factors that influence the student prior to his appearing at school. Peer-group pressures may have influenced dress and behaviour and also caused the discipline infraction. Further possibilities come to mind when one considers factors that could have intervened between the student's commitment to dress in a particular fashion and the fact that he has committed an act of indiscipline. A clash with a teacher over a matter of homework may have precipitated the act of indiscipline.

Multiple causality. Blalock (1961) raises another serious problem that bedevils statements of cause and effect when he notes the unfortunate tendency for social scientists to use one-to-one causal thinking, in the sense that each effect is assumed to have only one cause. The analysis of even two or three variables at a time is an artificial activity since there are a multiplicity of factors shaping human behaviour. It is unlikely to make sense to describe unequivocally the cause of indiscipline. The causal factors undoubtedly interact in different ways with individual students in particular circumstances. Over-simplification is an attractive response on the part of social scientists to matters as complex as deviant behaviour. This Committee has appreciated the possibility of multiple causality, though this is not strongly reflected in the data analysis procedures. Sophisticated statistical procedures, such as path-analysis (see for example, Borgatta, 1969), do attempt to interpret, the interplay of a number of causal factors but pressures of time precluded this type of analysis from being carried out.

The direction of influence. In complex matters such as school discipline, it is often difficult to determine which variable is a cause and which is an effect, or, in statistical terms, which is an independent variable and which is a dependent variable. In some instances, the differentiation between the determining and determined variable is relatively simple. If one variable occurs prior to another, then the possibility of it being a "cause" of the behaviour is enhanced. Hence, demonstration of temporal priority is one further means of strengthening a causal inference. However, often the temporal sequence of events is confused and complex. The suspected cause of indiscipline could in fact be just another effect conjointly influenced by some other variable. Student maladaptive behaviour may be seen as a response to the apparent disinterest on the part of a particular teacher in his dealing with the student. Even if this attitude can be demonstrated to have been expressed prior to the occurrence of the maladaptive behaviour, this observation does not confirm the existence of a cause-effect relationship. An antecedent factor such as school time-tabling could possibly have led to the disenchantment of the student through the separation from friends. At the same time, the teacher could have a teaching commitment to so many students that the development of rapport with each individual is virtually an impossibility.

The type of relationship. It is often convenient to think of relationships between variables as asymmetrical—for instance, home background causing maladaptive student behaviour. This thinking may well confuse the true nature of indiscipline. The Committee suspects that many of the relationships among factors associated with indiscipline, particularly in the school setting, are really of a reciprocal nature. Both variables specified in a particular situation might mutually reinforce each other. For example, suppose a student misbehaves and is caned. The caning, meant to eliminate the deviant behaviour, may, in fact, reinforce the student's anti-school attitude, thereby precipitating further infractions with school authorities. One has only to consider the disparate views between students and teachers over numbers of issues in order to proliferate further examples of this type.

Elaborating causal relationships. In spite of methodological limitations associated with non-experimental research, causality may be more confidently inferred from survey data by establishing that an observed relationship between two variables is not explained away by any other variable which can be investigated. The procedure to examine systematically the relationship is to introduce a third variable, called a test factor, into the analysis. If the relationship still persists, then the test factor is eliminated as a potential cause. The analyst must then introduce all of the factors which he conceives might prove the relationship to be spurious. To the extent that the relationship is maintained, then the probability is increased that the relationship is causal. It remains possible, of course, that another test factor exists which could explain away the relationship had the analyst the foresight to collect data on it and introduce it into his analysis. Because of this, the survey analyst can never be absolutely sure that the two variables are, in fact, causally related. The explicit procedures to be adopted in order to draw causal inferences from survey data have been comprehensively described by Rosenberg (1968).

In view of these considerations, to infer that the relationship between frequency of punishment at school and whether both parents had jobs outside the home was in fact a causal relationship, it would be necessary to establish that the relationship was maintained after taking into account factors such as socioeconomic level, age of students, and achievement and educational aspirations levels. When one had exhausted a check list of possible plausible test factors, then causality could be inferred.

In particular instances, this process of elaboration was pursued during the data analysis of student responses. The relationships between maladaptive behaviour and various dispositions of students were analysed while a third variable was held constant. Because of their complexity, elaborations of this type are not often recorded in this Report, though, as a matter of routine, the statistical analysis has been effected.

In summary, causality is easily conceptualized in the theoretical world. Unfortunately, it is difficult to demonstrate in the world of empirical research. Even in an area as thoroughly researched as juvenile delinquency, there is little conclusive evidence that allows definitive statements of cause and effect. Hirschi and Selvin (1967) report summaries of conflicting evidence regarding this matter. Some analyses of potential causal factors of school discipline were carried out *via* methods of statistical elaboration. In most instances, the Committee refrained from making unequivocal assertions of causality, although, where the Committee's findings were well supported by other research, some causal inferences were drawn. The preceding discussion, apart from simply describing the research methodology employed by the Committee, is meant to forewarn readers of jumping to causal conclusions which the Committee, after careful appraisal of the data, did not feel were warranted.

CHAPTER 5

EDUCATION REGULATIONS RELATING TO DISCIPLINE

THE LEGAL BASIS OF DISCIPLINE IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Legislation

The authority to establish, maintain and regulate schools in the State of Western Australia is given to the Minister for Education through the Education Act (1928-1972). The Act states that the Minister may "establish and maintain and carry on such . . . Government schools, and such other means of instruction, as he deems necessary or convenient for public education . . ." The Act further provides that education be compulsory for children from the year in which they attain six years until the completion of the year in which they turn fifteen years.

Under Section 28 of the Act the Minister is given the power to make regulations to govern the operations of his schools and Department. Subsection (1)(c) states that he may make regulations for

> the general management of schools, the admission, transfer, and classification of children and pupils, the discipline to be enforced, and the time and mode of teaching in schools, including religious instruction.

Other subsections of this section of the Act deal with matters relating to teacher service, the establishment and operation of schools, supervision and inspection, departmental operation, teachers' colleges, grants and scholarships, parents and citizens' associations and other matters of an administrative or organizational nature. Subsection (1)(m) of Section 28 is of particular interest as it allows the Minister to rule on

> health regulations, and the prohibition of attendance at a Government school of any child whose presence is injurious to the health, welfare or morality of the other children.

It is under this section of the Act that suspension of children from school may be undertaken.

The Education Department Regulations

Part III, Division 1 of the Education Act Regulations 1960 sets out regulations relating to discipline and conduct of teachers and pupils generally. Regulation 27(4) confers upon teachers a wide authority in as much as it requires a child to "obey and give effect to every order given by a teacher in the course of his duties, or in exercise of his powers as a teacher". This Regulation, in effect, requires a broad measure of obedience by students, and the authority it confers may be exercised both within and outside of the school and its grounds. Regulation 28(2) states that

> subject to these Regulations and any directions received from time to time from the Director-General, a teacher has authority to secure the good behaviour of his pupils both within the school and in the school playground and when a child comes to or returns from the school.

Discipline of the student

Within the Regulations provision is made for the following disciplinary measures:

(a) Detention after the hours laid down in the timetable.

(b) Corporal punishment.

(c) Suspension.

While these are the only disciplinary measures provided within the Regulations it is common practice for teachers to use added work assignments, enforced yard duties or deprivation of privilege for infringements of a minor nature. The Regulations are quite specific in their prohibition of any punishments that may be regarded as unreasonable. Regulation 32 states that "the discipline enforced in a school shall be mild but firm and any degrading or injurious punishment shall be avoided".

Detention. Regulation 28(1) states that a child may be disciplined by detention in school after the hours laid down in the timetable. This detention may be made on the grounds of idleness in school, unpunctuality, disobedience or any other similar fault. In this, as in all other matters of discipline, punitive measures may not be invoked because of an inability to learn. Detention may only be used as a form of punishment after school hours. The Regulations specifically forbid detention during lunch or recess periods and, generally, the period of detention should not exceed half an hour. In cases where detention exceeds half an hour the headmaster of the school is required to enter full details of the detention in the school punishment book.

Corporal punishment. The corporal punishment of children is allowed as a last resort in cases of wilful and persistent disobedience, gross impertinence or offences against morality. The Regulations are quite definite regarding the conditions under which this form of punishment may be used and specifically prohibit its use for trivial breaches of school discipline or for neglect to prepare home lessons. Western Australian Regulations specifically restrict the exercise of corporal punishment to the headmaster of a school or his nominated deputy and in all cases the punishment may only be administered by a cane on the palm of the hand.

Corporal punishment of girls over the age of twelve years is strictly forbidden. In the case of a girl under this age it may be inflicted only in extreme circumstances and by a female teacher should she be available. The corporal punishment of a girl is viewed as an extreme action and in the rare occasions on which it occurs a headmaster is required to enter full details in the punishment book and to bring the matter to the attention of the District Superintendent on the occasion of his next visit.

Suspension. The suspension of students from school is governed by two regulations. Regulation 35 states that

> no child shall be expelled from a school, but if a headmaster considers that circumstances so warrant, he may suspend a child from attending school and report the suspension to the Director-General, who shall decide the action to be taken in respect of the child.

Regulation 35 refers specifically to children below school leaving age. The suspension of children beyond school leaving age is governed by an amendment which was made to the regulations in March 1970. This amendment, Regulation 183A, was made specifically to govern the behaviour of those students who remain at school beyond the leaving age and requires that they attend school regularly and conform to the school's rules including those dealing with discipline. Subsection 3 of Regulation 183A provides that students who are beyond the school leaving age and who do not attend regularly or conform to the school's rules may be suspended by the principal in accordance with the conditions set down in Regulation 35.

REGULATIONS RELATING TO DISCIPLINE IN AUSTRALIAN STATES

An examination of the regulations relating to discipline in the various States of Australia indicates little variation between States. All States set down regulations relating to corporal punishment, detention, suspension and expulsion and within each of these categories the regulations follow a consistent pattern.

Corporal punishment

All States allow the use of corporal punishment but differences occur between States as to the means adopted. In Western Australia and New South Wales punishment may only be administered by a cane on the palm of the hand. In Tasmania a strap or cane on the hand may be used and in Victoria a strap only. No means of punishment is stated in the Queensland or South Australian regulations but, by inference, the cane is the instrument to be used. In all States irregular, degrading, injurious or unnecessarily severe forms of punishment are expressly forbidden. In New South Wales no person under the age of 21 years may administer corporal punishment.

Slight variations occur between States with regard to the regulations governing the corporal punishment of girls. Queensland, Victoria and South Australian regulations forbid the corporal punishment of girls under any circumstances. In Tasmania the regulations relating to corporal punishment state that, in extreme cases of open defiance of teacher authority, girls may be so punished. It is interesting to note that, in this case, no age limits are set down in the Regulation. In New South Wales and Western Australia the corporal punishment of girls over the age of twelve years is forbidden and only in extreme cases may such punishment be administered to girls below this age.

All States restrict the use of the cane to the headmaster of the school. The headmaster may, however, deputize another teacher to administer the punishment. Generally speaking, corporal punishment is carried out in private. In two States, Tasmania and South Australia, however, regulations specifically state that corporal punishment must not take place in public or in front of a class of children. In South Australia a special exception to this regulation is made in the case of offences against public morals or in cases of insubordination. In both cases corporal punishment may be given publicly.

Each State provides that punishments must be recorded in a punishment book. All States forbid the use of corporal punishment for failure to comprehend or inability to learn. Most States provide no means for parent objection to corporal punishment. In New South Wales, however, a special provision is made in the regulations for exemption from corporal punishment upon the written request of the parent.

Detention of students

All Australian State Education Department Regulations allow the detention of students at the end of the school day. In each State, the period of detention varies between a half and three-quarters of an hour. All States forbid detention during lunch or recess periods. While the practice of a male teacher detaining a girl pupil alone would be recognized by teachers as an unwise practice, specific reference forbidding this practice is made only in the New South Wales Regulations.

Suspension of students

The offences for which a child may be suspended from school vary little from State to State. Basically, the reasons given in State regulations are related to health, lack of cleanliness or a serious breach of discipline. In Victoria a child may be suspended from school for failure to observe any prescribed patriotic ceremony.

In all States, principals of schools may suspend a student from school but are then required to refer the matter to the Director-General or Minister for Education. There are, however, significant differences between States with regard to procedures to be adopted in the case of suspension. In Tasmania, a principal need not report a suspension if it is advised by a doctor or health officer, or if it is not for a period in excess of three days. In Victoria, an inquiry is held to determine the nature of the offence and the length of suspension, but if a child is in a secondary or technical school, no inquiry needs to be held if the headmaster allows the pupil to return to school and the suspension does not exceed ten days. In New South Wales regulations provide that the principal should advise the parent in writing immediately upon suspension of the child.

Expulsion from school

In Western Australia, the regulations state that no child may be expelled from a school. All other States, however, allow for expulsion in their regulations. In Tasmania a child who is expelled from a school may not enrol at another school except with the approval of the superintendent and the agreement of the headmaster "of the last-mentioned school". In all States where expulsion is allowed, it is the Minister for Education who must make the decision with regard to such expulsion.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOL RULES

Authority

The maintenance of effective and efficient school organization and operation requires certain regularities and expectancies with regard to the behaviour of teachers, students and administrators within the school and within the boundaries set for its various associated activities. The establishment of school rules, therefore, may be seen as an important part of the control structure that is established to assist in this maintenance.

In Western Australian secondary schools, the right of the staff to set rules, to regulate student behaviour and to expect the observance of these rules by students is established by regulation. Regulation 27 (4) of the Education Act Regulations requires students to obey and give effect to every order given by a teacher in the course of his duties, or in exercise of his powers as a teacher and Regulation 183A (1) and (2 (c)) extends this regulation to cover those students who remain at school beyond the leaving age. While authority is given to schools by regulation to establish rules, no formal requirements are set down for schools to follow with respect to their compilation, revision or dissemination. As a consequence, considerable variation exists between schools with respect to this matter.

The content of school rules

In order to gain accurate information regarding the procedures adopted for the compilation and dissemination of school rules, the Committee surveyed rules obtained from a representative sample of secondary schools. This survey indicated that most schools have an established set of rules which may or may not be available to students in a written form. These rules, which follow a somewhat consistent pattern, cover a wide range of student behaviours, the following of which are common to most schools:

The regulation of student absences.
Matters relating to attendance.
The care of school bags, student property and valuables.
The parking and use of student bicycles.
School and public bus procedures.
Student dress.
The allocation of eating areas.
The leaving of school grounds.
Litter within the school and its grounds.
Movement around the school.
Prohibited places.
Care of school property.
Smoking.

Included within the sample of rules gathered from schools are activities which are unique to certain schools or which are contained within the lists of only a few schools. The activities relate to

The development of school grounds.
The allocation of entrances.
Book hire schemes.
Entry into classrooms.
Vehicle parking.
School hours.
Hair length and safety.

A detailed examination of the sets of rules contained within the sample indicates that in almost every case rules are established to regulate the behaviour of students outside the classroom. In few cases were rules designed to structure student-teacher or inter-student relationships, or to regulate in any way instructional or related processes. In effect, the directions contained within the various listings were somewhat negative in their approach and not designed to implement any specific educational or social policy. This is not to infer the absence of such policies within the school but rather to indicate the lack of any apparent structure in the compilation of rules. Rules appear to have been set down more in response to specific occurrences than to carefully evaluated principles.

The Committee considers that school rules should not be set down merely in response to isolated situations within the school, but that their statement should be the expression of a definite educational policy designed not only to regulate behaviour within the school but also to develop within students a sense of social responsibility and a respect for the person and property of others. Rules which are set down in arbitrary fashion and imposed without explanation are less likely to gain the acceptance of students than those which are part of a consistent educational philosophy and which are designed to achieve specific social purposes within the school.

Recommendation

Students should have access to a statement of school rules formulated in accordance with definite educational principles. These rules should reflect policies with respect to behaviour both inside and outside the classroom.

The formulation of school rules

From an examination of responses to the Administrator Questionnaire and from an analysis of replies gained during interviews with a sample of high school principals, deputy principals and principal mistresses it would appear that a wide variety of procedures exists with regard to the formulation of school rules in Western Australian secondary schools. Generally speaking, the following operate:

(1) Rules are compiled by the principal and/or other administrative staff.

(2) Rules are compiled by the principal in consultation with other staff members.

(3) Rules are compiled by the principal, with some staff and student participation.

It would be true to say that while efforts are being made to involve students to a greater degree in the decision making processes of the school there is little evidence to suggest wide student participation in the formulation of school rules in secondary schools at the present time. When asked their opinion on the matter of student involvement in the formulation and supervision of school rules most high school principals agreed that it was highly desirable that students should be involved. Most expressed the view that where children participate in the formulation of rules they tend to have a greater appreciation of their need and there is a consequent lessening of resentment against their application. Some principals sounded a note of caution, however, and stated that students tend to be more severe in their judgments and punishments than do teachers. Those principals who allow a greater measure of freedom to students in the matter of formulating and supervising school rules indicate that they are often forced to intervene to moderate the severity of measures that students propose for the disciplining of other students.

Student perceptions. In the Student Questionnaire, students were asked to express their opinion as to the desirability of student participation in formulating school rules. Figure 5.1 sets out, by percentage, student responses to the question "Who should make the rules in a school?".

According to the responses represented in Figure 5.1, it is apparent that students do wish to have some say in the formulation of school rules. They do not, however, wish to assume full responsibility for this task, but rather wish to participate with teachers. Only a very few respondents (6 per cent) stated that

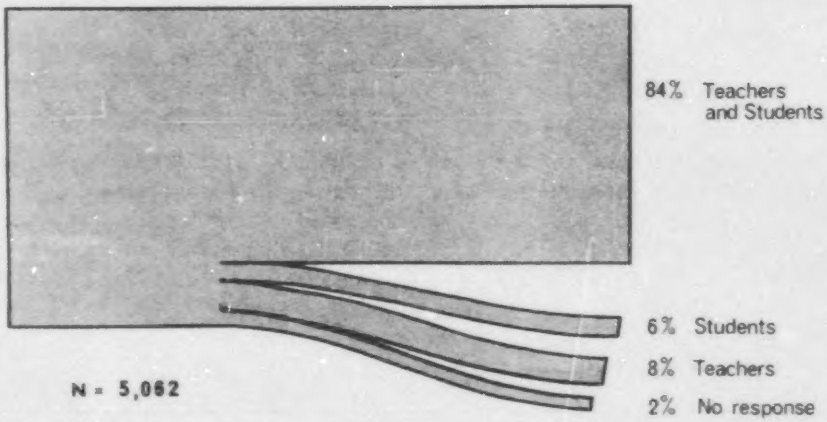

FIGURE 5.1. STUDENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION "WHO SHOULD MAKE THE RULES IN A SCHOOL?"

they considered students should set rules themselves. Similarly, only a very few (8 per cent) considered that teachers should set rules without reference to students. It may be inferred that students are much more ready to submit to rules governing their behaviour where they have had some say in their formation.

Further understanding of the responses represented in Figure 5.1 may be gained from their analysis by year level. Table 5.1 contains percentage responses to the question, "Who should make the rules in a school?" by year level. These figures indicate differences in perceptions between year levels which reflect the growing maturity and selectivity of upper school students.

In the first year, for instance, 16 per cent of students indicate that they consider that the teachers should set the rules of the school by themselves. In the Fourth and Fifth years, there is a considerable drop in the percentages to two and four per cent respectively. A similar trend is evident in the percentages listed for those who consider that the students should set rules by themselves. Students in the upper school appear to realize more fully than those in the lower school that the formation of school rules is not a matter which students may undertake by themselves. The responses to the statement that teachers and students should

TABLE 5.1

STUDENT RESPONSES BY YEAR LEVEL TO QUESTION "WHO SHOULD MAKE THE RULES IN A SCHOOL?"

Responses	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
	%	%	%	%	%
The teachers by themselves	16	8	4	2	4
The teachers and the students	75	81	87	96	94
The students by themselves	7	8	7	1	1
No response	2	3	2	1	1

N = 5,062.

make the school rules show a gradual increase from 75 per cent to 96 per cent and 94 per cent in Fourth and Fifth Years. This progression, again, indicates a trend for students to seek a greater share in the determination of school rules as they progress through the secondary school.

Evidence from submissions. Support for student participation in the formulation of school rules was given in several of the submissions received by the Committee. In a statement of resolutions submitted by a senior high school Parents and Citizens' Association, reference is made to the fact that student participation should be increased in the high school. The Progressive Teachers' Association, in its submission, views with concern the fact that "school rules are usually imposed on students from above, with little regard being paid to students' views". In its recommendations this group includes the statement:

> Student bodies within the schools must be given autonomy within clearly defined areas and initiative regarding matters affecting the student body as a whole, including such matters as school rules, uniforms, and student activities.

Parent opinion regarding student participation. In the questionnaire sent to parents, the question was asked, "Do you think that students ought to have more say about what goes on in school?". Table 5.2 sets out the percentage responses obtained from this item.

From this table, it may be seen that 44 per cent of parents are in favour of greater participation in the decision-making processes of the school. Some support was also given to this view in responses given in the section of the Parent Questionnaire reserved for added comment. Typical of some comments made in this section is the statement, "If students were allowed to have more say in making rules at school they would most probably pay more attention to them?".

Parent participation in formulating school rules. Most educators would agree that parent support and encouragement are highly conducive to successful student performance in school. It is often stated that parents and teachers are partners in the education of children. The degree of direct parent participation in the educative process, however, is one which varies according to location.

TABLE 5.2

PERCENTAGE RESPONSES BY PARENTS TO QUESTION "DO YOU THINK THAT STUDENTS OUGHT TO HAVE MORE SAY ABOUT WHAT GOES ON IN SCHOOL?"

Response	%
Yes	44
No	41
Uncertain	13
No response	2

N = 1,512.

In contrast to countries such as the United States of America and Canada, which have a decentralized system of education involving lay control and a consequent strong local interest in education, Western Australia has little official parent participation in education. Under the terms of Sections 22, 23, 26 and 27 of the Education Act, the parents or guardians of children attending any Government school, or group of schools, together with other persons being over the age of eighteen years, may form a Parents and Citizens' Association. Under the terms of the Education Act Regulations the object of such an Association shall be

> To promote the interests of the Government school or group of Government schools in relation to which it is formed, by endeavouring to bring about closer co-operation between the parents or guardians of the pupils attending at the school or the group, other citizens, the teachers at the school or group, and those pupils and by providing facilities and amenities for the school or group, including buildings, swimming pools and any type of recreational or educational facilities and amenities and generally to endeavour to foster community interest in educational matters.

The functions of a Parents and Citizens' Association, therefore, do not include any matters related to control over any aspects of the general operation of schools. Indeed, under the Regulations these Associations are specifically precluded from exercising any authority over the teaching staff, or from interfering in any way with the control and management of a school.

While there is no formal provision for the participation of parents in the formation of school rules, information was sought in the Parent Questionnaire regarding the degree to which parents would like to be involved in the making of school rules.

Table 5.3 sets out percentage responses to the question, "Do you think that parents should have a say in the making of school rules or should this matter be left to the Principal and staff?".

TABLE 5.3

RESPONSES REGARDING PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE FORMATION OF SCHOOL RULES

Response	%
Parents should help	19
Left to principal and staff	76
Uncertain	3

N = 1,512.

It is clear from the responses in this table that a majority of the parents of Western Australian high school students are content to have the making of school rules left to the principal and his staff. Further analysis of these responses according to ethnic origin and occupation revealed that people who had migrated to Australia from Northern Europe, and school teachers, were much more in favour of parent involvement in the formulation of school rules. Those parents who were generally satisfied with the type of education being given to their child also favoured leaving the formation of school rules to the principal and staff more so than parents who were dissatisfied.

Despite the fact that a majority of parents did not display any desire to participate in formulating the rules of the school, the Committee considers that positive benefits could be derived from their involvement, at least in an advisory capacity. In view of the very strong influence that the home can exert on child behaviour and performance in the school (see Chapter 12), it would seem desirable that there should be some congruence among teachers, administrators and parents with respect to measures adopted to regulate student behaviour both inside and outside the classroom.

Conclusion

Evidence from various sources lends support to a claim for greater student involvement in the process of determining school rules. Generally speaking, most groups see the need to involve students as much as possible. While students express the opinion that they would like to be involved, they see their participation as a partnership with teachers. Very few students, particularly senior students, wish to have full responsibility for formulating school rules, but they do not wish teachers to assume the full responsibility either.

The Committee supports the view of those who see the need for greater student and parent involvement in the formulation of school rules. It also considers that this should be a co-operative venture with teachers.*

Recommendation

School councils consisting of administration, staff, students and parents should be established in all secondary schools to allow the annual involvement of students in the formation, implementation and revision of school rules.

The communication of school rules

An analysis of responses contained within the Administrator Questionnaire indicates that a wide variety of procedures are adopted to familiarize students with school rules. These procedures vary from well-defined instructional procedures coupled with the distribution of written rule manuals, to no defined procedures or method of communication. Table 5.4 sets out percentage responses from principals to the question, "How are school rules communicated to students?".

TABLE 5.4

PERCENTAGE RESPONSES "HOW ARE SCHOOL RULES COMMUNICATED TO STUDENTS?"

Response	%
Orally	11
By written means....	1
Both oral and written	86
Not communicated	....
No response	9

N = 54.

The responses in this table indicate that most schools adopt the procedure of supplying students with copies of written rules and reinforcing this by oral explanation at assemblies, during class periods and during public address periods. While it would appear that in most high schools the means of acquainting students with school rules is quite satisfactory, there may be some cause for concern in the fact that the table indicates that, in 11 per cent of schools, communication is carried out only by oral means.

* A more detailed analysis of student involvement in decision making is given in the section dealing with student government in Chapter 9.

Subsequent to the analysis of the Administrator Questionnaire, selected interviews were carried out with high school principals to determine instructional procedures associated with the distribution of written school rules. From these interviews, it would appear that procedures vary widely from carefully structured explanations to no formal explanation beyond an initial discussion during an assembly period.

The following list detailing the most common procedures, reported during interviews, illustrates the variety of approaches which are adopted to familiarize children with school rules:

(1) A sheet detailing school rules is issued to all children at the beginning of the year and no formal follow-up procedures are adopted.

(2) As for (1), with the addition that school rules are discussed several times in formal class situations at the beginning of the school year.

(3) A school information booklet containing school rules and other general school information is issued to all children at the beginning of the school year.

(4) A school information booklet plus a statement of student rights is issued and discussed at the beginning of the school year.

(5) No written copies of school rules are issued but frequent oral explanation is given during assembly periods and during the times allocated for addresses over the public address system.

(6) School rules are made known at the time of infraction.

A consideration of this list indicates that, in some schools, children gain an early and clear understanding of school rules and policy, and in addition some attempt is made to develop in a formal way some understanding of their basis. In other schools, uncertain approaches to the communication of school rules could lead to confusion in the minds of students regarding their application and uncertainty as to the limits to which their behaviour may be taken before incurring negative sanctions.

Recommendation

Secondary school principals should establish written and oral procedures to acquaint all students with school rules and policies at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter.

Student information booklets. The survey of current practices with regard to the provision of student information indicates that the practice of providing information handbooks to students at the beginning of the school year is becoming more common in Western Australian secondary schools. These handbooks provide information on school operation, course availability, school facilities, personal dress and appearance, fees, time-tables and a variety of other items of information which allow students to orient themselves to the school situation. They also provide information which would be of considerable value to parents to enable them to gain an understanding and appreciation of school operation and policies and allow them to make more informed decisions in the selection of courses for their children. Enquiries made by the Committee indicate that this practice of issuing information booklets to students is widely practised in overseas educational systems. Generally, these handbooks serve a triple purpose—they orient children to the school; they provide parents with knowledge of school policies and operation; and they provide teachers new to the school or system with a body of knowledge regarding expectancies which are held for student and teacher behaviour and information about the administration and organization of the school.

A feature of some student handbooks which the Committee considers to be of value is that of providing an explanation for rules of the school. The following extract, taken from a copy of a handbook submitted to the Committee by the principal of one high school, illustrates well this type of approach:

> *Smoking*
>
> Smoking is strictly forbidden in the school or grounds at all times, at any school function or at any time that the student is wearing school uniform.
>
> We do not see smoking as being morally wrong, but it is an expensive habit to develop and it can be MOST injurious to health.
>
> For these reasons we want students to refrain from smoking until (we hope) they have enough sense not to smoke at all. That is why we view smoking or the possession of cigarettes very seriously.

In some schools, rules tend to evolve over a long period of time, in which case, the reason for their being is often not as obvious as at the time when their need arose. In some cases this need no longer exists and the rule is perpetuated more for reasons of tradition than for regulating the operation of the school. The reasoned statement which accompanies the rule, therefore, serves a dual function—it makes clear to students the basis upon which the rule has been formulated; and it serves as a mechanism of evaluation which can lead to easy modification.

The information contained in student booklets can be equally valuable for both parents and students. The Committee considers that the following types of information would be of value to parents:

(1) Matters relating to school dress, including the making of school uniforms.

(2) Information regarding school expectations of dress, standards of behaviour and personal appearance.

(3) Channels of parent-school communication and co-operation.

(4) Information with regard to curriculum content, course selection, course change and other related matters.

(5) Statement of the role of parents in the educational process (*e.g.*, homework, supervision, provision of study space, etc.).

Research carried out by the Committee and reported elsewhere in the Report, and research carried out both in Australia and overseas, indicate that the home environment has a very marked effect upon student behaviour and performance. It would seem, therefore, that a strengthening of communication between the school and the home could have beneficial effects upon school discipline. The adoption of student information booklets in all high schools would appear to be a desirable practice

Recommendations

Secondary schools should provide all students with information booklets containing details of school operation, administration and organization at the beginning of each school year and as necessary thereafter. These information booklets should contain, in addition to student information, explanations to inform parents of school procedures and requirements.

These information booklets should contain copies of school rules together with the reasons for their establishment.

Information booklets should contain information specifically directed to parents. This should include statements regarding school expectations with regard to dress, appearance and behaviour; matters relating to parent-school communication and co-operation; information relating to course selection and curriculum content; and policy with regard to the parents' role in the educative process.

STUDENT RIGHTS

Introduction

Today, any discussion of moral, legal or political issues will soon involve reference to rights. In recent times, political theorists have shown increasing interest in the concept. In some countries statements of rights have been included in constitutional or other foundation documents. The Declaration of Independence of the United States of America, and the Declaration of Rights of Man and of Citizens by the National Assembly of France, for instance, contain reference to basic rights to which a citizen of those countries is entitled. More recently and in reference to a much wider context, the United Nations has issued its Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Regarding this Declaration, René Maheu commented (Fensham, 1970, p. vii):

> A code of ethics that seeks to inspire man's actions in a changing world, and to engage individuals and states of widely differing cultures, cannot advocate any specific belief other than the inalienable rights of every person to his freedom. But the practical exercise of freedom that is conscious of its own dignity and responsible for the dignity of others pre-supposes the fulfilment of certain conditions. That is why the Universal Declaration sets out a number of specific rights of man.

In the literature and debate on modern education, the reference to the concept of student rights is becoming increasingly apparent. In many countries the attempts of various interest groups to gain entitlements to which they consider they may lay claim are manifested in student activism and violence. These have occurred mainly at tertiary level but they are also in evidence, in some countries, at the secondary level, particularly in the United States of America and to a lesser degree in the United Kingdom.

Concern over ethnic, social, political, economic and educational deprivation together with a heightened awareness of the worth of the individual and the need to cater for his individuality in the school situation have also led educators at all levels to question traditional attitudes towards the role of the student, and the authority relationship that he has with the teacher.

In Western Australia there have been some attempts by students at tertiary and secondary levels to gain from educational authorities the acceptance of claims to certain entitlements regarding participation in school government and the regulation of student behaviours. At the secondary level these have not received sustained or widespread support among students but those responsible for the posting of such claims have been persistent in their actions.

Student efforts towards the attainment of what they view to be desirable entitlements may be seen in recent publications handed to secondary students by student based groups seeking educational reforms. One of those groups claimed that "students have the right to exercise all rights enumerated in the United Nations Declaration of Rights". Under the headings of "Freedom of Political Activity", "Freedom of Speech" and "Free Elections" were documented a set of student rights. Some of these—for example, student participation in decision-making—are claims to which most educators and most of those concerned with education would give full support. Indeed, many are now being actively encouraged in Western Australian high schools. Other claims, however, such as the right of students to strike, would most probably meet with disapproval from a large section of the teaching force, who would see in the implementation of these claims a loss of staff control over the teaching/learning situation which is inconsistent with their conceptions of teacher role.

Definition of rights

In various submissions, in discussions and interviews, and in the analysis of written replies received from parent, teacher and administrator questionnaires, the Committee found frequent reference to the question of student rights. Typical of responses noted are the following:

> "Suspension is a negation of a child's legal rights."
> "Every child has the right to a full secondary education."
> " . . . to force a child to cut his hair is an infringement of his natural rights . . ."
> "A child has a right to good teaching . . ."

Reference to these responses and to the use of the term "rights" in the literature on education indicates that there is considerable confusion over the precise meaning of the term. Within various contexts it may be used to refer to an extremely important human value, a commonly held belief, a protection in law, a social requirement, a liberty, a legitimate claim made upon another person, state or society, the possession of a power, or a moral claim. This list by no means exhausts the various shades of meaning given to the term. It does, however, serve to illustrate the confusion and misinterpretation that can arise in debate upon the subject.

In the following discussion, the definition of a right used by McCloskey will be adopted. After reviewing various definitions of rights he states (McCloskey, 1970, p. 8):

> It is more illuminating to think of rights as entitlements, as entitlements to do, have, enjoy, receive, have done. To claim a right is to claim an entitlement of some sort, a moral authority to do, demand, enjoy or receive.

Types of rights

Entitlements may differ from situation to situation, and behaviours which are acceptable in one context may be quite unacceptable in another. A person may, for example, give another a severe "bump", which may be quite legitimate in a game of football but which when given in the street could well constitute assault. If one is to speak of rights, it is essential that a clear description of the context in which they will operate should be given. Reference may be made to rights such as legal rights, moral rights, social rights, institutional rights and rights in games, and quite clearly those who are using these terms are referring to entitlements of different kinds.

While various categorizations of rights are possible, for the purposes of this report a broad distinction will be made between those which are legally enforceable and those which are not. It is not intended that this discussion will cover every aspect of the topic of rights. Its main emphasis will be to provide a basis of discussion for matters of a contentious nature, such as the wearing of school uniforms, hair length and the wearing of beards—matters which have engaged much attention and interest in the community.

Rights and powers—a legal view

The Committee acknowledges with gratitude the assistance given in the preparation of this section on rights and powers by Mr A. Dickey, of the Law School of the University of Western Australia.

A law may be defined as an order or command that the courts will enforce in a variety of ways, including the use of physical force if need be. If a person is required to act (or to refrain from acting) in a particular way as a result of such a command, then they are said to be under a legal duty. Law, therefore, is concerned essentially with the enforcement of duties.

If a person is under a legal duty to act to the advantage of some other person, that other person is said to possess a *right*. This particular definition of a legal right may be illustrated by reference to the case of assault. In law everyone has a duty imposed upon him not to assault other people. The law will enforce this duty by applying a sanction against those who transgress this law. It may be said, then, that those to whom one has a duty not to assault have a corresponding right not to be assaulted. In this sense a legal right is essentially passive in character; one never has a right "to do" something, for a right is the result of someone having a duty to act or forbear in one's favour.

So far as the courts are concerned (and thus, so far as the law is concerned) every person is either under a duty to act (or not to act) in a particular way, or he is quite free to act (or to refrain from acting) in that way. In legal theory, this legal freedom to act is referred to as a "liberty" or a "privilege". Figure 5.2 sets out diagrammatically the relationship between a right, a duty, and a liberty.

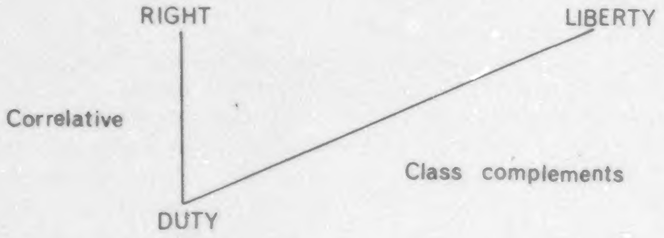

FIGURE 5.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A RIGHT, A DUTY AND A LIBERTY

In common parlance, both a legal right and a liberty are often referred to simply as "a right". This may be illustrated by reference to whistling. One who is asked to stop whistling in a street may refuse to do so stating he has a right to whistle in the street. In legal terminology his so-called "right" is in reality a liberty, for it does not emanate from a duty that is owed to one by another. A liberty is doubtless referred to as a right because the courts will allow it and therefore it is deemed to have judicial approval. So it has, but only to the extent that the courts will not act to restrain it as they will in the case of a breach of duty. On the other hand the courts will directly protect a strict right by enforcing the correlative duty.

Duties, and thus strict rights, are not entities that just appear or which are in continual existence; they have to be created and, because of this, may be changed, deleted or modified. The most obvious way in which duties (and thus rights) may be created is by statute, though, in fact, they are created in a multitude of other ways. For example, when a person offers a cigarette to another and the offer is accepted, new rights and duties are immediately created, for, whereas until that time the one who accepts was under a duty not to interfere with the other's cigarettes (to do so could well constitute, for example, theft), once he has taken possession of the cigarette with the other's consent, the person who gives the cigarette now becomes under a duty not to interfere with that cigarette.

In legal theory, if a person has the ability to change a legal duty—and thus also to change the correlative right—be it either by imposing or abrogating a duty, that person is said to have a *power* and the persons whose rights and duties are likely to be changed are said to be under a *liability*. As to when a person has a power will depend on the relevant rule of law as applied to the facts of any situation. Like a legal liberty, a legal power is often referred to colloquially as a "right". It is, however, clearly not a strict "right"; at most a power is an ability to change a duty. The following example serves to clarify the above position.

Under the appropriate regulations, a teacher may punish a student in a stipulated way whenever a student exhibits a certain behaviour *x*. Until a student exhibits this behaviour *x*, a teacher is under a duty not to punish the student in the stipulated way and the student has a legal right not to be so punished. However, the student also has a "power" to change these rights and duties (by exhibiting that behaviour *x*) and as a consequence the teacher is "liable" to be affected, too; to be more precise, the student has the "power" to abrogate the teacher's duty not to punish him in the stipulated way and as a result to abrogate his rights not to be so punished, and the teacher is liable to have his duty abrogated. The student, then, by exhibiting the certain behaviour *x*, exercises his "power" to change the relevant rights and duties. Immediately the rights and duties change—the teacher is no longer under a duty not to punish the student; instead, he now either has a duty or he has a "liberty" to punish the student (depending on whether the relevant regulation states that he must, or simply may, punish the student), and the student loses his right not to be punished. But more than this happens as a result of the student exhibiting that certain behaviour *x*, for another consequence is that the student is now liable to be punished if the teacher decides to punish him; in theoretical terms, the teacher now has a "power" to impose upon the student the duty to submit to punishment, and the student is "liable" accordingly. (The correlative right here is the teacher's right that the student submit to punishment.) Nonetheless, despite all these changes in rights and duties the teacher is always under duty not to punish the student whenever he does *x* in any way other than that stipulated, and the student always has a correlative right not to be punished in any other way in such circumstances.

Legal rights in the school situation

Under the terms of the Education Act, the Minister for Education in Western Australia has had conferred upon him the power to provide an education for children from the year in which they turn six years of age. The Act states that the Minister "may continue and maintain and carry on such other Government schools, and such other means of instruction, as he deems necessary or convenient for public education . . .".

The Act gives the Minister the power to make regulations for a variety of purposes, among which are included

> . . . the general management of schools, the admission, transfer, and classification of children and pupils, the discipline to be enforced and the time and mode of teaching in schools, including religious instruction.

and

> . . . health regulations, and the prohibition of attendance at a Government school of any child whose presence is injurious to the health, welfare or morality of the other children.

The Education Act Regulations are promulgated in accordance with the powers given under Part VII of the Act. These contain specific regulations governing the behaviour of children and teachers and set limits to the nature of punishment that may be invoked by principals and teachers in the disciplining of children. In terms of the above definition of a legal right, children attending school possess certain rights.

The rights possessed by children in the school situation arise as a correlative of duties imposed on the Minister, his officials and his teachers in the Education Regulations. The Regulations, for instance, place on teachers a duty not to use in school any sectarian or denominational publication or party political propaganda of any kind. Students in a school, therefore, have a legal right to be free from the imposition of such influences. In the case of punishments, the Regulations state precisely the means that may be adopted within a school and the reasons for which they may be used to discipline a student. As a consequence students are under a duty to be punished when required for those reasons specified, though they have a right to be punished only in the ways authorized. As an example, Regulation 33 states that corporal punishment may only be inflicted for reasons of offences against morality, for gross impertinence or for wilful and persistent disobedience. A student, therefore, may be punished only when he exhibits one or more of such behaviours. To punish him for inability to learn, for instance, would be an infringement of the rights guaranteed to him by the Education Regulations.

The limits of legal duties

While Regulations may confer upon teachers wide and far-reaching powers and require of students certain duties, in certain instances the question as to whether the exercise of such powers or the performance of such duties fall within the framework of the Regulations may be the subject of a determination by a court of law. A parent could, for instance, lodge a complaint in regard to the actions of a teacher alleging that such actions were outside the scope of his powers as conferred by the Regulations, or that they were unnecessary, unreasonable or in the circumstances excessive. The court would then rule, having regard to the Regulations and the particular acts complained of, whether the lodging of such complaint was justified. Although such decision could subsequently be a guideline for teachers who find themselves in similar situations, it would not necessarily establish the limits* to which a teacher could act under that particular regulation.

Rights with regard to dress and personal appearance

In recent years few issues in the school situation have aroused more interest and debate than have those of student dress and appearance. Often such debates tend to assume a degree of importance out of all proportion to the actual impact that these matters have upon school discipline. In submissions made to the Committee and in responses given in questionnaires by parents, teachers and administrators, frequent reference was made to the fact that a clear-cut ruling was needed with regard to the "rights" that teachers and students enjoyed in this regard. Basically, the questions asked were, "Can the school regulate matters of personal appearance?" and "Does the principal of a school have the power to make rules regarding the wearing of school uniforms?"

In one sense the Education Regulations impose a duty upon students to obey any direction given by a teacher.

Regulation 27 (4) states:

> A child shall obey and give effect to every order given by a teacher in the course of his duties, or in the exercise of his powers as a teacher.

Regulation 183A (1) further states:

> Students who remain at school beyond the leaving age shall attend school regularly and conform to the school's rules including those dealing with discipline.

These Regulations would seem to impose upon students a duty to give unquestioning obedience to every legitimate direction given by a teacher. They would also seem to cover almost every behaviour in which a child may be involved and to extend to matters of dress and physical appearance. The duty expressed in the Regulation 27 (4), however, is qualified by the statements:

> ". . . in the course of his duties. . . ."
> ". . . in the exercise of his powers as a teacher. . . ."

In effect, therefore, the duty of the student to obey his teachers is confined to those matters relating to the teaching-learning process and the administrative and organizational procedures necessary to regulate this process. In order for a teacher or administrator to require action with regard to student dress and appearance, therefore, it would be necessary for him to show that these matters were in some way affecting the efficient and effective operation of the teaching/learning process, with the efficient discharge of his duties as a teacher or with the orderly operation of the school. This could involve a question of opinion or interpretation and, on appeal to a higher authority (*e.g.*, a court of law), the teacher's opinion or interpretation might not be upheld. A teacher can, however, require action with respect to dress and appearance in accordance with regulations dealing with matters of health. Regulation 18, for instance, imposes a duty on students to attend school in a clean condition. Regulation 19 imposes the duty on girls to keep long hair tied back if required and a duty on boys with long hair to wear a hairnet in woodwork or metalwork classes. Regulations 21 and 22 impose on students a duty when ordered by the headmaster to exclude themselves from school and to seek treatment where they may be suffering from some infectious disease.

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* Such limits could be subject to change after a period of time.

The question of student entitlements with respect to dress and physical appearance, therefore, would appear to be quite clear cut. In the absence of any duty with respect to dress or appearance required within the Education Regulations, students have the liberty to dress as they wish and to regulate their appearance as they wish provided that they conform to acceptable standards of health and cleanliness. Where, however, in the opinion of a teacher their dress or appearance is such that it interferes in any way with the orderly operation of the school or the effective implementation of teaching/learning processes, then under Regulation 27 (4) he may require of that student a modification of dress or appearance such that they do not constitute an interference. He could not, however, require a student to change his dress or appearance merely because they were not in accord with his particular tastes with regard to these matters.

Dress and appearance of students may, however, be regulated not only by Education Regulations. Certain duties may be imposed in law. Laws dealing with obscenity, for instance, would require certain levels of modesty in the type of clothing worn by students, and the principal of a school would be quite justified in prohibiting the wearing of student dress which he considered transgressed acceptable community standards of modesty or decency.

Present Departmental policy. While matters of dress and physical appearance would seem to be the subject of concern to certain groups of students, teachers, parents and administrators, Education Department policy on matters of school uniform and hair length has been clearly stated. The Department has consistently maintained the position that the wearing of school uniforms is not compulsory and, in terms of Regulation 19 requiring a hairnet for boys with long hair in woodwork or metalwork classes, has given tacit approval to the wearing of long hair by boys. In the absence of any specific directive, Regulation or other published statement regarding the wearing of beards, it must be assumed that this liberty exists for children in State schools. The approval (granting the right to wear long hair) and the liberty (to wear a beard), however, are subject to health restrictions—for example, those relating to pediculosis in the case of long hair.

Summary. From the foregoing analysis it is clear that the school has power to regulate dress and personal appearance when:

(1) They interfere in any way with the efficient operation of the school or with the teaching/learning process.

(2) They constitute a danger to the health or morals of other students.

(3) It considers that they exceed what may be considered reasonable bounds of cleanliness and modesty.

The school authorities cannot legally require a student to wear a school uniform nor can they object to the wearing of clothing simply because they disagree with the particular design or the material of which it is made. It can, however, insist that the clothing be clean and be correctly worn and that it conform with what the law decrees is a reasonable standard of modesty. It would also be unreasonable on educational grounds, to expect that a school should tolerate slovenly or untidy habits in dress or appearance, for these matters are closely related to the social training that schools are expected to provide. Schools can be expected to regulate these matters.

Similarly, the school has no power to regulate the physical appearance of students. Unless a school can show that such matters as long hair, beards, etc., constitute a health hazard or in any way interfere with the operation of the school or the teaching/learning process, then it has no power in law to require a student to alter his appearance. The fact that a teacher does not like long hair on boys, for example, is no reason why all boys should be required to have short hair cuts. If, however, it could be shown that a boy's long hair was a definite cause of the spread of pediculosis within the school, then the school would be justified in requiring the student to have his hair cut, or excluding him and requiring him to seek medical treatment before readmittance.

In these matters of school clothing and personal appearance, the Committee supports the present policies pursued by the Education Department and considers that they are consistent with the principles outlined in the foregoing analysis.

Recommendation

The Education Department should adopt measures to ensure that school administrators are adequately informed on the nature and extent of their legal powers and duties.

Rights other than legal rights

In the section of this chapter dealing with types of entitlements, a broad distinction was drawn between those rights which have a basis in law and those which do not. Often those who speak of rights are referring to this latter category. In effect they are saying that certain entitlements ought to be available to all members of the community or to certain sections of it. These rights which are not legally based may be extremely important human values that may have their origin in religious belief, in historical tradition or in other sources. It is not assumed that these have always been present, but they are "humanly contrived beliefs that express what some people in a certain cultural context and at a particular time deem of supreme importance". Such rights, while they may be commonly held by most members of society, are generally not legally enforceable. They are usually expressed in very abstract terms and often require explanation, and as the environmental conditions change so, too, does the content of the right change. Ritchie (1895), in discussing what determines rights, draws a very clear distinction between a legal right and a nonlegal or moral right. He states (p. 79):

> The difference between legal and moral rights makes it obvious that moral rights cannot be so precisely determined as legal rights. Different sections of the society to which a person belongs and for whose opinion he cares may hold different views as to various duties, and consequently as to various rights. Conflict is therefore possible about moral as well as about legal rights; but in the matter of moral rights there is no law court to which appeal can be made to pronounce a binding decision.

Within the school situation there are besides the legal rights established by virtue of the Education Act and Regulations certain student and teacher expectations regarding entitlements which are derived from a wide variety of sources. Some of these expectations find their source in economic, social and cultural changes occurring within the wider community, some are the product of tradition, and others arise from the pressures exerted by small groups in order to attain ends which they consider desirable. To categorize and discuss each of these would be a lengthy process beyond the scope of this Report. Some of the more obvious, however, are discussed below.

Student demands. Demands for "rights" on the part of certain student organizations and by student groups within selected schools have become more common in Western Australia in recent years. A recent rally in Perth attended by several hundred secondary school students, some of whom were given permission by principals to represent their schools, discussed the following list of "rights":

(1) Freedom of dress.

(2) Freedom of expression.

(3) Listing all school rules so that students know their rights. No arbitrary punishment by the administration. The right of students to appeal against any disciplinary measures to a court of their peers.

(4) End corporal punishment.

(5) End all segregation on the basis of sex and between teachers and students.

(6) More finance for education.

An examination of these items indicates that what is being sought by this particular group is a mixture of changes in school administration, in Education Regulations and in political support for education. These demands are a further example of the confusion in the use of the term "right" that has been referred to above.

Demands for "rights" such as those listed by students' organizations, although advocated with some force, appear to have little widespread active support among secondary school students. This is not to say, however, that students have no interest in individual items contained within the lists presented. It has been indicated elsewhere in the Report that students are generally quite interested in the attainment of greater measures of student self-government, in the selection of the types of clothes they will wear, and in other aspects of school operations. Their interest is not, however, a one-sided demand for teacher action. They see themselves as active participants, co-operatively working with teachers, and not independently of them, in the achievement of a desirable school climate and in the attainment of educational goals.

Attempts that have been made to issue statements of student rights in schools have involved the distribution of pamphlets and news sheets. This approach, however, seems to have had limited impact upon students. Survey results show that less than a quarter of students, mainly in the upper school, have read any of these. Only 19 per cent show any marked interest in their content and very few (four per cent) express any strong belief in what they have to say. It is possible that students react unfavourably to efforts from those external to the school situation to establish the direction of their involvement for lists of "rights" which they suggest themselves approximate in many ways those set out in the pamphlets. The following list sets out in order of student preference "rights" considered desirable by a sample of upper school students:

(1) The "right" to have freedom in the selection of school clothes with no compulsion regarding the wearing of school uniforms.

(2) The "right" to have a say in school government through an elected student council.

(3) The "right" of appeal against administrative decision.

(4) The "right" to decide whether or not to participate in sport and physical education.

(5) The "right" to have freedom of speech and to be able to criticize school operation.

(6) The "right" to choose whether or not to attend classes.

(7) The "right" to choose and carry out social and extra-curricular functions.

An examination of "rights" suggested by lower school students shows little variation from these. A comparison of this list with that handed out during a student rally shows a close correspondence on many items. Those concerned with dress, freedom of expression, and rights of appeal are very similar in each case. A major difference between the groups, however, is that those students in the random survey would prefer to see the operation of their "rights" through the mechanism of a student council working in co-operation with teachers. The news-sheet listing adopts a stance which appears to be more antagonistic in its attitude towards teacher participation.

Teacher-prepared lists

In some high schools statements of student rights have been included in handbooks given to students. The following list is taken from a handbook issued to students at one metropolitan high school. It is patterned on similar lists in operation in other schools:

(1) The right of recourse to authority.
(2) The right to be considered innocent until proven guilty.
(3) The right to be heard. (You must get a chance to explain.)
(4) The right to be given the benefit of the doubt.
(5) The right to call witness. (To prove your innocence.)
(6) The right, once punishment has been inflicted, to be considered as having paid for the offence and again to be regarded the same as everyone else.
(7) The right to appeal to the Deputy Principal or Principal Mistress in the event of injustice being alleged at a lower level.

The list is somewhat narrower in scope than those put forward by students in as much as it makes no reference to school dress, to school government and operation or to matters relating to what students have termed "freedom of expression". Its emphasis is directed mainly to matters of punishment and the means whereby students may be given fair treatment in matters of disciplinary actions. Part of this narrowness in approach is due to the fact that matters considered as rights by students are dealt with in other sections of the handbook or may be dealt with separately in sections of school policy documents. The difference between lists would appear to be due to variations in the definition of the term "rights". What is considered a right by some students may be seen by the principal and staff purely as an administrative arrangement.

Rights and responsibilities. Demands that are made for student rights or entitlements within the school situation have brought forward the counter claim on the part of some teachers and administrators that the granting of rights entails the acceptance of responsibilities. This claim suffers from problems in defining responsibilities similar to those encountered with regard to rights. To some, responsibility means the performance of certain required duties; to others it refers to the limits of student behaviour consistent with norms held by the members of the teaching staff. While many are prepared to use the term and to state that students should accept responsibilities, few have been willing or able to put forward what these responsibilities should be.

While the concept of responsibilities is an attractive one, its lack of precision would appear to be the most cogent argument against its use in any discussion of student behaviour or rights. Rather, it would seem preferable to discuss student behaviour in terms of the duties imposed by law and by the Education Act and Regulations.

Summary. An examination of lists of student rights proposed by various groups indicates considerable variation that is due mainly to definition of what constitutes a right. To some teachers, rights are concerned mainly with processes associated with punishments. Student claims involve a broader range of behaviours but may contain matters which teachers include under other titles in handbooks or in statements of school policy. When all documents associated with the operation and administration of the school are considered, it would appear that there is close congruence between teacher and student perceptions of student behaviours within the school that may or may not require regulation.

Basically two stances may be identified. Many students seek a broad measure of student-teacher co-operation in the decision-making processes of the school. Some groups, at present in the minority, seek a clear-cut delineation of matters of student behaviour over which the school staff and principal would have no power of control. There is also evidence to suggest that, in the compilation of guidelines for student behaviour, most students would prefer to arrive at decisions within their own school rather than have some externally compiled measures imposed upon them.

Regardless of these general findings on student attitude, it remains a fact that schools vary considerably among themselves. The quality of administrative leadership, the nature and numbers of students, the physical facilities, the degree of student government, the age of the school amongst a host of other variables would render it difficult to generalize with regard to particular rules that may govern student behaviour and areas in which responsibilities and autonomy of action may be allocated. The Committee considers that the determination of specific student entitlements of a non-legal nature is more properly a matter for determination by individual schools, and it would hope that in the determination of such entitlements there would be close co-operation and participation by students through elected school councils, and by parents through the agency of the school's parents and citizens' association.

The question of constitutional rights

The assumption is often made by those who refer to the rights possessed by an individual in the Australian situation that there are certain fundamental rights clearly set down in constitutional documents. There is, however, no statement or bill of rights such as may be found in the Constitution of the United States of America. There are some rights conferred in the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act such as freedom of religious choice and from religious discrimination, and freedom from discrimination on a State basis, but, generally speaking, the situation with regard to constitutional rights is as stated in the section dealing with legal rights.

There is, then, no such thing as a person's constitutional right. To claim, therefore, that a person's constitutional rights have been violated with respect to education would be incorrect, for a person has no constitutional rights with regard to education. Similarly, an Australian citizen has no constitutional rights with regard to such matters as freedom of speech, freedom of action and the like. An Australian citizen has rights in law and he has liberties in the absence of a duty conferred by law, but he does not have a constitutional right.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child

On 20 November, 1959, the United Nations General Assembly unanimously adopted and proclaimed a Declaration of the Rights of the Child, setting forth those rights and freedoms which the various countries of the world agreed every child, without any exception, should enjoy.

As in the case of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly in 1948, these rights seek to set a standard which all should seek to achieve. The following paragraphs have particular reference to education:

> The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.
>
> The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance. That responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.
>
> The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of his right.

While this declaration does not have a direct bearing upon the matter of school discipline, its spirit is very much in keeping with the concepts of educational organization and development held by the Committee. Its emphasis upon the development of social and moral responsibility and of adjustment to society is very much in keeping with the recommendations expressed elsewhere in this Report.

THE DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE PRINCIPAL

In general

The duties required of a Western Australian secondary school principal are set down within the various sections of the Education Regulations. Within Part III of these Regulations specific reference is made to the duties required of a headmaster or principal. These cover a wide range of topics and include responsibility for the safe custody of the school buildings and furniture, for the preparation of programmes of instruction for clerical and accounting procedures, for the preparation of statistical returns and for all other matters relating to the care and operation of the school.

The principal also has duties with respect to teachers, students and other persons within the school. By virtue of the Regulations he has the right to expect compliance with his directions by both teachers and pupils. He may require any person to leave the school premises and may enlist the aid of teachers or members of the school's parents and citizens' association in the conduct of a book shop, book hire schemes or similar amenities.

Legally, the secondary school principal has delegated to him a wide range of powers. Of particular concern to this Committee, however, are those that he has with respect to the methods of punishment he may adopt in the disciplining of a student. Under the Education Regulation three means of punishing children may be adopted in the school situation. The first of these, detention after the hours laid down in the school time-table, may be invoked by both teachers and principal. The second and third means—corporal punishment and suspension—may only be inflicted by the principal.

In some submissions made to the Committee and in teachers' questionnaires, the claim was made that "greater power" shoud be given to the principal. Typical of such responses were

> Headmasters should have power to expel students without referring to the Department.
>
> . . . all headmasters should have the *power* to deal with disciplinary problems as they see fit—instead of having to refer to the Department . . .
>
> Principals should have the right to suspend and in the case of over-age students the right to expel students without consulting a higher authority.
>
> The Principal of a secondary school should be given powers to deal with discipline problems in his school as he sees fit . . .
>
> The school must be given more authority to deal with miscreants: A high school principal should be vested with powers of suspension so that the school population is protected from the arrogance and delinquency of a small minority . . .

A careful analysis of these responses indicates that in almost every case what is meant by an extension of the powers of a principal is an extension of the power to suspend from school children who are extremely disruptive of the teaching/learning process, who openly question or defy teacher authority, or who cause serious disruption of the administrative organization of the school.

If extensions of a principal's powers were meant to refer to corporal punishment it would be difficult to see how these could be effected without transgressing accepted humanitarian standards within the community or exceeding what in law may be considered a reasonable exercise of the powers given under the Education Regulations. It would appear that the extension of power considered necessary by teachers relates mainly to that power conferred by Regulation 35, which states:

> 35. No child shall be expelled from a school, but if a headmaster considers that circumstances so warrant he may suspend a child from attending school and report the suspension to the Director-General who shall decide the action to be taken in respect of the child.

Regulation 35 and its revision

Under Regulation 35 as it now exists, the principal of a secondary school may suspend a child from school if he considers that circumstances so warrant. This action, however, is subject to confirmation by the Director-General of Education. In effect, the Director-General assumes direct responsibility for the decision to suspend. If an extension of the authority to suspend were to be granted it could involve

(1) Unrestricted authority to suspend students from school without reference to or review by the Director-General.

or

(2) Authority to suspend students for restricted periods of time without reference to the Director-General (by up to ten days as in the case of Victorian secondary schools).

In each of these cases, the responsibility for the decision to suspend would necessarily remain with the Director-General of Education, for, while he may delegate authority, he cannot delegate responsibility. The school principal, however, would be the person who would be expected to answer any criticisms or challenges of the action so taken.

One very important consideration of the action taken under Regulation 35 is whether suspension is a punishment or a period in which the allegations made against a pupil may be investigated and confirmed or modified. If suspension is viewed as a punishment, then it may be pertinent to allow the principal of a school some measure of latitude in suspending a child from school without reference to the Director-General. If, however, suspension is viewed as a period in which the allegations of the school against a child's behaviour may be investigated, then it would appear to be essential that reference should be made to the Director-General for his impartial judgement in the matter.

In consideration of the above alternatives, the question may be asked, "Does the student (or his parent) have any right of appeal in the matter of suspension from school?". In effect, can the school quite arbitrarily decide upon suspension? If suspension is considered to be a punishment, as is corporal punishment or detention, then it would appear that in suspensions of short duration no such mechanism of review would be necessary. If, however, suspension includes, or is considered to be, a period of review then it would be essential that reference should be made to the Director-General to ensure that the reasons for suspension were adequate and the period of suspension was commensurate with the nature of the offence committed.

From evidence presented to the Committee and from opinions expressed by its various members, it would appear that the matter of suspension includes aspects of both punishment and review. An analysis of various suspensions that have been carried out during the period 1968-1971 indicates quite clearly that in a majority of cases the emphasis is quite clearly upon punishment. From Departmental adjustments to initial school action, however, it is evident that elements of review are also of importance.

In reviewing suspensions that have taken place the Committee fully appreciates that these have been made only as a matter of last resort and only where the behaviour has constituted a disruption of the teaching/learning situation, a danger to the morals and well-being of other students, or a serious impediment to the effective administrative operation of the school. In all cases the action was taken not in response to a single item of behaviour but rather to a series of major infractions of discipline extending over a relatively long period. The Committee fully realizes the considerable strain that such extreme indiscipline places upon teachers and administrators and the disturbing effect that it can have upon the behaviour, morale and attitudes of other students.

In view of the dual purpose of suspension, therefore, the Committee considers that some measure of freedom should be given to principals in the matter of suspension but at the same time sees the necessity to preserve the rights of students and parents to receive a full measure of review regarding such an important decision in which a student's schooling and character are involved. The Committee therefore makes the following recommendations with respect to the alteration of Regulation 35 of the Education Regulations:

Recommendations

(1) Where a student attending a secondary school continuously misbehaves, the principal should invite the parents to discuss the student's future in the school.

(2) The principal of a secondary school should be empowered to suspend from school for a period of up to five days a student who is guilty of a serious breach of school discipline.

(3) In the case of suspension for serious breaches of school discipline, the parents of the student should be notified immediately and requested to visit the school to discuss the problem. In the case of oral notification, written notification must follow immediately.

(4) No suspension exceeding five school days should be made without the approval of the Director-General of Education.

CHAPTER 6

NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE DISCIPLINE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

Different perspectives

Within the school situation, administrators, teachers and students are the main protagonists in disciplinary disputes and, from their separate vantage points, they may hold disparate views of the nature and the extent of disciplinary problems. Even within each of these groups, the expectations in regard to the behaviour of students, both in and out of the classroom, vary widely. What may appear to be a gross form of student misbehaviour to one teacher may be casually shrugged-off as "normal" by another. In the same way, of course, what may seem to one student unreasonable behaviour on the part of a teacher may be perceived by another student as quite within the limits of a teacher's role. The evaluations of even the most impartial and well-informed educators or students cannot avoid being coloured by their own internalized norms, by discussions among restricted circles of colleagues, by the influences of the various forms of mass media—including that which is designed specifically for teachers and students—and to a large degree by their own limited range of experience.

For the layman, the problem of assessing the true nature and extent of disciplinary problems is even more acute. He must rely upon the infrequent and sometimes misleading reports of the various mass media, upon occasional contacts with the school through children or friends, or upon his recollections of his own experience in school. It is unfortunately the case that the reports in the media, while often successful in their main task of reporting the exceptional and dramatically different against a background of what is generally known, often fail to give prominence to the undramatic event. Cases of indiscipline in schools are considered more newsworthy than cases of normal or even exceptional good conduct.

Control of students

Most educators would support the view that student control plays a major part in determining the nature of the in-school behaviour of teachers and students.

Furthermore, student control affects relationships between teachers, for teachers seen as being weak on control may have a diminished status among their colleagues.

Control, as one aspect of discipline, is an essential ingredient of group life in any organization and implies requirements for, and restraints upon, the behaviour of participants. The limits of this behaviour may be established formally through the requirements of a particular status position, through written rules or regulations or informally through tradition, and through the norms held by the group. Within the school situation, positive and negative sanctions are used to ensure compliance with rules and other expectancies for behaviour; these are considered desirable to effect the efficient implementation of the school's aims. The sanctions may be punitive, utilizing such methods as coercion, ridicule or the withholding of rewards. Non-punitive sanctions, such as approval or appeals to a student's sense of right and wrong, are based upon an understanding of the student's motivations and encourage self-discipline rather than imposed discipline.

Unlike other organizations, Government-operated schools do not have the right to select their own clients. Legally they must accept for instruction students with certain specified age limits; and students, in turn, are obliged to attend and receive this instruction. This compulsory aspect of education, coupled with the independence and individuality sought by students learning adult roles, virtually ensures at least an occasional questioning and non-compliance with school rules and organization.

Nash (1966) states in connection with the learning of adult roles:

> Children must be given a measure of free choice and self-determination before they are fully ready for it. They are never fully ready, and we must be prepared to take chances with them, while at the same time preparing them as fully as possible for the responsibilities of such freedom.

Recent approaches to education aim to engender within students the ability to develop creative and independent thought. This development is in distinct contrast to past requirements of unquestioning obedience to prescribed codes of behaviour. If modern approaches to teaching and learning are to stress originality, creativity and the development of an enquiring attitude, it may be reasonable to expect that tensions will occur between teachers and pupils and will be a continuing aspect of modern-day school systems.

Rules

The provision of rules in an organization provides guidelines for the definition of acceptable behaviour. Paradoxically, most school rules set limits to the out-of-classroom behaviour of students but provide few guidelines for in-classroom behaviour, which by far consumes the bulk of a student's time at school. Consequently, the limits of acceptable pupil and teacher behaviour within the classroom are more flexible and generally depend on the vagaries of the teaching situation, which, in turn, are accentuated by features of school organization such as cross setting. Organizational procedures of this type can inhibit the development of stable student-teacher relationships. Thus, acceptable standards and patterns of classroom behaviour will vary from teacher to teacher and from situation to situation. The criteria employed by one teacher to assess a classroom learning climate or standard of student behaviour may differ quite significantly from those held by other teachers. Without a clearly established definition of acceptable student behaviour, the identification of deviant behaviour is susceptible to the background, mood and predilection of different teachers, a situation which can only confuse the disciplinary process.

The classroom environment

The social milieu and physical surroundings in which schooling takes place affect the way in which teachers are able to exercise their authority. The physical constraints of having between twenty and forty students sitting desk to desk in a classroom virtually predetermines the way teachers and students must relate to each other. Learning theorists are adamant that many of the important learnings that ought to take place at school are engineered through the social interaction with others. Most of a student's time at school is spent in a classroom. The complex role of the teacher requires him to encourage children to interact with himself and other students yet prevent reasonable order deteriorating into indisciplined chaos. On many occasions the teacher must walk a tightrope over a disorderly climate where particular students have predispositions towards upsetting his balance.

Of course, students must operate under certain constraints while gaining a formal education. For large periods of time, the student is expected to behave in the classroom as if he were in solitude. Because students are reliant on teachers to determine their learning priorities and make many minor decisions about how the lesson is to proceed, they must learn to be patient and wait for a teacher directive or response.

Jackson (1968, p. 18) writes of the ambivalence that these constraints have on the way students behave and learn.

> . . . We can see that if students are to face the demands of classroom life with equanimity they must learn to be patient. This means that they must be able to disengage, at least temporarily, their feelings from their actions. It also means of course that they must be able to re-engage feelings and actions when conditions are appropriate. In other words, students must wait patiently for their turn to come, but when it does they must still be capable of zestful participation. They must accept the fact of not being called on during a group discussion, but they must continue to volunteer.

The passivity of the role that students have in schools is reflected in the manner in which classroom conversation is conducted. Studies of classroom communication throughout the world reveal that teachers carry on from two-thirds to three-quarters of all classroom communication, the student for the most part responding to teacher initiated conversation.

Teacher-student relationships

Waller (1965, p. 195) has described the conventional form of teacher-student relationship as

> . . . a form of institutionalized dominance and subordination. Teacher and pupil confront each other with an original conflict of desires, and however much the conflict may be reduced in amount, or however much it may be hidden, it still remains. . . . The teacher represents the established social order in the school, and his interest is in maintaining that order, whereas pupils have only a negative interest in that feudal superstructure.

The awareness of the power of adults has been learnt by the student long before he enters school. Initially the power and authority are entrusted to the school by parents. In the transition from home to school, the authority of parents is replaced by the authority of the teacher. The teacher may punish the student just as the parent would. Jackson (1968) points out that the circumstances in which teachers exercise their authority are radically different from those of parents at home. Teacher-student relationships must be conducted in a climate of relative impersonality. The very fact that groups of students confront teachers for the purpose of instruction in carefully delimited circumstances reduces for most students the possibility of the intimate sorts of relationships that can occur in the family environment. Power is wielded by a relative stranger.

Although particular teachers may exercise their authority with various degrees of subtlety, it is always clear that the teachers administer the power and have been given the responsibility of determining classroom events. The teacher ultimately manages all classroom discussion, determines what the student studies and for how long, allocates learning resources to the student, delegates and makes judgments on the calibre of the student's work and behaviour and allocates special privileges and rewards. The teacher is the ring-master.

The ideal of democratic discipline

In its submission to the Committee, the Progressive Teachers' Association referred to the concept of democracy in teacher-pupil relationships.

> Emphasis should be placed upon the elimination of the authoritarian, undemocratic and stressful features of present relationships. Greater emphasis should be placed upon students as people and teachers and administrators should concern themselves as much with the development of personality and humanity in their students as with the inculcation of subject matter. Further, teacher dominance should be replaced by a far more active participation by students in the classroom situation as occurs in pre-school education.

The Committee sees a need to elaborate the concept of democracy in the classroom, since it appreciates that, at certain times, without the approval of a group of students but in their best interests, the teacher must make an unpopular decision. The complete abnegation of his role as disciplinarian is likely to invite classroom anarchy. It is the Committee's view that discipline and obedience evolve from friendly and realistic teacher-pupil relationships, and behaviour limits are only imposed when absolutely necessary. Ausubel (1965, p. 31) describes this type of discipline as follows:

> Democratic discipline is as rational, non-arbitrary and bilateral as possible. It provides explanations, permits discussion, and invites the participation of children in the setting of standards whenever they are qualified to do so. Above all, it implies respect for the dignity of the individual, and avoids exaggerated emphasis on status differences and barriers to free communication. Hence it repudiates harsh, abusive, and vindictive forms of punishment, and the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and intimidation.

The description of democratic discipline which Ausubel gives is one with which most teachers would agree as being consistent with modern learning theory and with what research has to say about the teaching/learning situation. Few, however, would subscribe to a complete freedom from all external constraints and direction, or to a removal of all standards, as is sometimes advocated. Freedom from discipline is not a desirable end in itself and the eradication of all distinctions between teacher and student is totally unrealistic and ignores the reality of the broader structure of society. Teachers and administrators would be failing in their duty to students if they abdicated responsibility for making decisions within their classrooms.

Elsewhere in this Report, reference is made to the fact that some disciplinary problems arise because of teacher weaknesses or indiscretions. In some questionnaires teachers expressed the view that "there are no pupil disciplinary problems; there are only teacher problems". While this view is not widely held, it has often been raised in connection with the view that repressive, authoritarian methods of administration and control are solely to blame for student excesses of behaviour. The implication is that if the child finds school a place where he has no restraints, he will act in an acceptable manner; that if he is treated with respect, he will reciprocate with respectful attitudes towards teacher; that if he is given sympathetic consideration by teachers in all of his relationships with them, he will respond in a similar way. Some teachers expressed this view by stating: "If you treat children as you wish to be treated yourself, you will have no disciplinary problems." While this approach may have positive results with a majority of students and with particular teachers, the teacher must still have the capability of enforcing control and, if necessary, inflicting certain legitimate forms of punishment. It is unrealistic to think that all students will consistently behave in the best interests of the class when so many factors from both within and outside the classroom impinge on and motivate behaviour. Authority is necessary for the maintenance of order in adult society. It is no less necessary in the school, both because the school is itself a part of society, and because students need to learn appropriate responses to authority in readiness for their participation in the adult world. The questions which may legitimately be raised in the pursuit of democracy relate to the nature and source of authority and whether authority is being exercised merely for its own sake.

Differences in values

Gordon (1957) and Coleman (1961), in the United States, documented the ways in which peer groups create value systems for children. These values are often antithetical to school objectives. However, Coleman's thesis that the adolescent sub-culture is separated from and is basically in conflict with adult society may be an oversimplification of the facts. Australian evidence obtained by Connell *et al* (1957), Wheeler (1960) and Campbell (1962) suggests that the attitudes and values of the adolescent are derived from, and are similar to, those of adults. Whatever the source of acquisition, the values of adolescents in Western Australia appear to reflect the plurality of values found in society at large. Inevitably, students from disparate cultural backgrounds will confront teachers with divergent opinions about acceptable standards of behaviour.

Table 6.1 indicates responses of students to an item which required a reaction to six behaviours that are likely to elicit a contentious response from a cross section of the community. Some would view an exhibition of these behaviours as evidence of a permissive contagion among youth.

TABLE 6.1

STUDENT RESPONSES BY YEAR LEVEL TO QUESTION: 'DO YOU, DO YOUR PARENTS, DO YOUR FRIENDS OR DO YOUR TEACHERS THINK HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO DO THE FOLLOWING?'

	Number of students	Year 1 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298	Year 4 593	Year 5 372
		%	%	%	%	%
1. DRINKING ALCOHOL?						
	Yes	12	20	28	37	45
You	Uncertain	12	17	22	20	17
	No	72	57	45	41	36
	Yes	9	10	12	13	18
Parents	Uncertain	11	14	19	19	23
	No	76	71	65	65	57
	Yes	18	32	42	49	58
Friends	Uncertain	32	33	34	35	29
	No	44	28	19	13	10

	Number of Students	Year 1 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298	Year 4 593	Year 5 372
		%	%	%	%	%
	Yes	4	4	3	2	2
Teachers	Uncertain	25	29	30	44	54
	No	65	60	61	52	43
2. BOYS HAVING LONG HAIR?						
	Yes	67	79	84	87	91
You	Uncertain	15	8	6	7	3
	No	15	9	7	4	4
	Yes	26	32	35	36	40
Parents	Uncertain	30	28	28	27	26
	No	39	34	33	36	32
	Yes	71	80	85	90	88
Friends	Uncertain	17	10	8	7	7
	No	8	4	2	1	2
	Yes	13	16	16	19	19
Teachers	Uncertain	46	45	48	52	53
	No	35	32	31	28	25
3. HITCH-HIKING?						
	Yes	14	26	35	38	47
You	Uncertain	13	14	16	15	15
	No	69	54	45	46	37
	Yes	4	6	9	9	14
Parents	Uncertain	11	12	14	17	16
	No	81	76	73	71	69
	Yes	22	34	42	44	51
Friends	Uncertain	30	30	28	32	28
	No	42	30	25	21	18
	Yes	2	3	4	4	4
Teachers	Uncertain	26	31	35	48	58
	No	64	60	55	41	34
4. STAYING OUT LATE AT NIGHT?						
	Yes	34	46	58	57	64
You	Uncertain	24	25	23	24	20
	No	38	23	16	16	14
	Yes	13	14	17	16	23
Parents	Uncertain	23	28	30	33	33
	No	60	53	50	49	42

Number of students		Year 1 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298	Year 4 593	Year 5 372
		%	%	%	%	%
Friends	Yes	47	59	69	70	76
	Uncertain	31	26	20	23	18
	No	17	8	5	6	2
Teachers	Yes	9	7	7	6	9
	Uncertain	47	52	54	62	65
	No	38	34	33	29	24
5. SMOKING CIGARETTES?						
You	Yes	20	34	42	46	49
	Uncertain	14	13	14	9	11
	No	62	48	40	43	39
Parents	Yes	8	10	11	14	20
	Uncertain	12	15	20	22	23
	No	75	70	64	61	55
Friends	Yes	35	47	56	59	61
	Uncertain	27	24	23	22	22
	No	33	23	16	16	14
Teachers	Yes	7	6	5	6	6
	Uncertain	23	26	30	40	46
	No	63	61	59	52	46
6. KISSING?						
You	Yes	62	77	83	87	91
	Uncertain	20	12	10	8	5
	No	14	6	4	4	2
Parents	Yes	34	41	46	49	59
	Uncertain	37	37	37	36	32
	No	24	16	13	14	8
Friends	Yes	65	78	84	87	91
	Uncertain	21	12	10	9	5
	No	8	4	2	1	....
Teachers	Yes	17	22	27	26	27
	Uncertain	51	52	50	59	59
	No	26	19	17	13	11

Several conclusions emerge from an analysis of Table 6.1. There was little evidence of unanimity of opinion among West Australian youth with regard to the various contentious behaviours.

Students responded that their peers were more approving of the behaviours than either themselves, their parents or their teachers.

Older adolescents are more likely to approve of the behaviours than younger adolescents.

A smaller proportion of teachers than parents was seen as sympathetic towards the behaviours, though a larger number of students expressed uncertainty with regard to their expectations of just what their teachers are prepared to approve.

The implications of these observations are severalfold.

The gap in values between a segment of the student population and teachers, with regard to out-of-school behaviour, serves to colour relationships in the classroom. The teacher is confronted with a cultural barrier when attempting to play down status differences and relate with these students on an apparently co-equal basis. Not only is there a power differential but also a cultural differential constraining the development of student-teacher rapport. Furthermore, teachers and students may differ among themselves with regard to these social values, and may not even share the same educational objectives. Only one-third of all students responded that they would rather be remembered as an outstanding student than a star sportsman or sportswoman, or as a most popular student. These values, whether learnt from adult society or from peers, operate to subvert the role of the teacher in that they are antithetical to major school objectives.

Inflexibility on the part of the teacher in dealing with students at different year levels and with different value systems must exaggerate his social distance from the student and impede communication.

Teacher directiveness

The ideal of democratic discipline is not always attained in Western Australian classrooms. Relative to the conduct of classroom affairs in Britain, the United States and New Zealand, there is evidence to suggest that Australian teachers are more authoritarian in their relations with their students and more reliant on regulating classroom behaviour through the stipulation of rules. Adams (1970, p. 54) writes of a recent, extensive investigation:

> The results from Australia are, comparatively speaking, bland, but they do have slightly austere overtones. Australians de-emphasize personal relations, free communication, the use of differentiated groups and permissiveness. Adding to the somewhat traditional impression is the fact that the two items ranked high were: subject matter and the use of prescriptive rules.

The stereotype of many Australian teachers as prescriptive and authoritarian is not especially softened by consideration of responses to the Student Questionnaire.

It is evident that Western Australian teachers have developed a strong reliance on various forms of punishment, such as caning, detention or duties. (See Chapter 7.) Though not all students may be recipients of these punishments, their existence must colour perceptions of school and retard the development of a rapport between student and teacher founded on understanding and respect.

TABLE 6.2

STUDENTS' RATINGS OF 'MOST TEACHERS IN MY SCHOOL' EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES OF YEAR LEVEL RESPONDENTS

	Very strict	Strict	Neither or uncertain	Lenient	Very lenient	Other	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Year 1	20	25	28	7	5	15	100
Year 2	18	26	30	10	4	12	100
Year 3	14	30	30	12	5	11	100
Year 4	7	32	33	20	4	4	100
Year 5	3	24	45	23	3	2	100
Total number of responses	794	1,409	1,584	623	254	398	

Table 6.2 shows that students in the lower school, where discipline problems are more acute, tend to regard most teachers in their school as strict.

It would seem that teachers react to the behaviour of lower school students by imposing tighter controls on classroom activities. This response is in many ways instinctive, but its effect is likely to provoke further student reaction, increase tensions or, at most, maintain an uneasy status quo.

With highly motivated students conscious of impending examinations and the rewards that accrue from successful school achievement, teacher domination of classroom events becomes not only probable but necessary, since the teacher is the expert and dispenser of information. In these circumstances, the teacher may be highly directive and have absolute control but not be considered strict or overbearing while the class norm is so highly achievement oriented. Hence, most Fifth Year students did not have a strong feeling about the strictness or leniency of teachers. Forty-five per cent held a neutral view.

For many low achieving students, however, whose life goals are not dependent on successful school achievement, a strict or repressive school climate is intolerable.

Figure 6.1 and Table 6.3 underline this point.

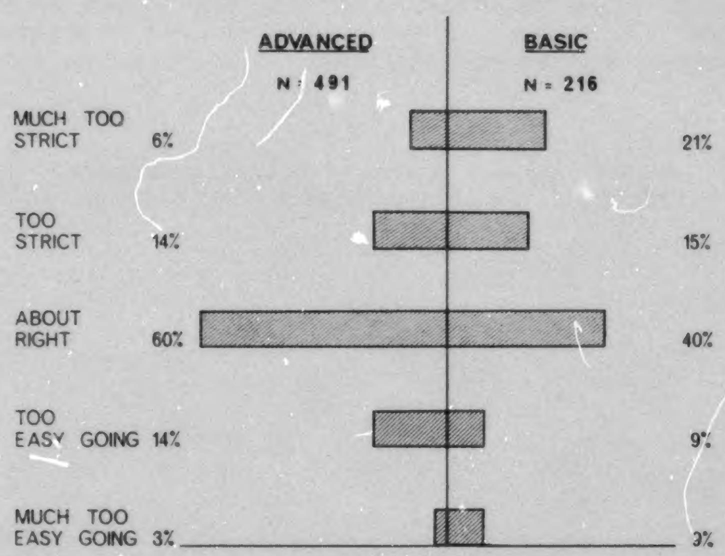


FIGURE 6.1. PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS AT ADVANCED OR BASIC LEVEL IN ALL FOUR CORE SUBJECTS.

Among students from the lower school, 21 per cent of those working at Basic level in all four core subjects believed that discipline was much too strict, but only six per cent of students at Advanced levels in the four core subjects held similar perceptions. The successful student was, on the whole, much happier with the state of school discipline. It is noteworthy that within the Basic group of students there was a greater divergence of opinion of school discipline. The greater conflict of viewpoint is probably explained by the existence of two factions of students, one reacting against the norm violating behaviour of their fellow students, the other, poorly motivated, unsuccessful and feeling highly restricted by the life that the classroom offers.

Though the pattern of responses illustrated in Table 6.3, *Successful and Unsuccessful Student Perceptions of Most Teachers in Their School,* may contain bias owing to a higher proportion of Basic level students not correctly completing the item (the instructions for this particular item were somewhat sophisticated)

TABLE 6.3

SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF MOST TEACHERS IN THEIR SCHOOL

	Very strict	Strict	Neither or uncertain	Lenient	Very lenient	Other	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Advanced in all four core subjects (N = 491) ...	7	35	36	15	2	5	100
Basic in all four core subject (N = 216)	33	12	13	2	5	35	100

nevertheless, of those correctly responding, more than half felt that most of their teachers were very strict, a proportion considerably in excess of the Advanced group of student responses.

The creative student

Throughout this Report, reference is made to the involvement of low achieving, low ability students in disciplinary disputes. This type of student, however, is not exclusively the protagonist in clashes with teachers. Friedenberg (1963) suggests that highly creative students, as distinct from those with high I.Q.'s, are also prone to disrupt the social environment of the school and antagonize their teachers. Commenting on a comprehensive study by Getzels and Jackson (1962), he notes how the hostility and aggression of the highly creative student pervades the data. Friedenberg writes:

> We do not, of course, know how this spiral of reciprocal hostility starts, whether the youngsters become hostile and sarcastic because they are punished for their originality, even though they first express it openly, innocently, and warmly, or whether a youngster will only think and feel divergently if he starts with a certain detachment from and distrust of conventional, established attitudes and procedures.

Evidence is shown elsewhere in this Report that larger proportions of the students frequently punished by school authorities complain of the monotony of teaching methods, dependence on textbooks and failure on the part of the school to provide opportunities to be inventive. Under these conditions, for many students the day-to-day existence in a classroom is a stifling experience. The danger exists that *any* divergence of behaviour will be negatively sanctioned by the school.

LIKING SCHOOL

Comparison with primary

The public hears very little about students who are satisfied with the way their schools are run, yet these students are in the majority. Overall, only 11 per cent of students felt that their schoolwork was boring, 18 per cent of students expressed a strong dislike of school and 30 per cent of students disagreed that they really enjoyed their work at school. Yet it is primarily on this group of students that the Committee has focused much of its attention and on whom much of the world-wide reform in education is centred.

It would seem that most students begin their high school careers full of optimism and enthusiasm. Table 6.4, *Student Perceptions of Primary Versus Secondary School Achievement By Year Level,* shows more than half of First Year students responding that, relative to their primary school experience, they are doing better. Only 11 per cent of First Years believe that they are doing worse than in primary school.

TABLE 6.4

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF PRIMARY VERSUS SECONDARY SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT BY YEAR LEVEL

Present achievement		Year level				
		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
	N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
		%	%	%	%	%
Better now than before		56	57	54	40	37
Worse now than before		11	14	18	29	34
About the same		30	27	26	29	27

Somewhat surprisingly, the percentages of students who claim to be doing better in secondary school are similar in all three lower school year levels, yet it has been established that, in Second Year, most students and teachers encounter discipline problems. By Fifth Year, one-third of the students recognized that their achievement status had deteriorated, yet it is the Fifth Year group that is the most selected and motivated in the school. The explanations of this trend are probably severalfold. First, the greater maturity of these students would enable them to calculate more realistically the probability of their successful completion of secondary education—measured by public examinations. The criterion of success is externally rather than self imposed. Future success in an external examination is less likely to be the criterion used by lower school students. Secondly, the upper school students are further removed in time from their primary school experiences and their recall of events may be operating selectively. For the primary school students, life in a high school is an experience to be anticipated. Various freedoms and responsibilities are associated with learning in the high school environment—new subjects, new teaching methods, and mixing with older students. A third possibility is, of course, that the accumulation of less pleasant experiences in high school, by Fifth Year, tips the balance in favour of the primary school years.

In response to a request for students to nominate reasons why they were more or less happy in secondary school, the more satisfied students generally ascribed their attitude to factors such as maturity, improved academic performance, and a realization that secondary education was leading them towards some form of employment. Typical of comments from students with more favourable impressions of high school were

> "I am getting better marks and have more friends."
>
> "I have a more mature attitude towards study now that I know what I want to be."
>
> "I know it is more important for my school and the sort of job I get to have high grades."
>
> "There is more to choose from in subjects and you realize that a good job is important."
>
> "The work is explained more in full and my understanding is better than it was in Grade 7."
>
> "I have gained more interest in myself and now mix with a group who like working."

Students who were relatively less satisfied with their secondary school experience identified a number of factors contributing towards their dissatisfaction. The comments below are representative as far as possible.

> "Lower marks in exams. More outside interests (girls)."
>
> "People make me clown around too much."
>
> "I haven't been studying hard enough."
>
> "I am not applying myself to the harder work."
>
> "In primary school there wasn't as many kids and I could get on better with everyone."
>
> "Teachers seem to spend more time in helping their students at primary school. This is not so at high school."
>
> "In a country town (where I was in Grade 7) there are not so many kids to compete at your level. Here there are."

The less satisfied students attribute a varied number of factors as the cause of their feelings about high school. For the satisfied students the explanation tended to be simple—if they felt they were more successful, then they were more satisfied.

Attitudes towards school

While upper school students may be more enchanted with their primary school days, their overall attitude towards school is similar to that of their lower school counterparts. The responses of students from all year levels to the statement, "I really enjoy my work at school", are shown in Table 6.5.

TABLE 6.5

STUDENTS' FEELINGS OF ENJOYMENT OF SCHOOLWORK—BY YEAR LEVEL

Statement: I really enjoy my work at school	N=	Year 1 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298	Year 4 593	Year 5 372
		%	%	%	%	%
Response—						
Strongly agree		14	8	6	6	5
Agree		39	35	32	34	35
Uncertain		22	22	23	23	22
Disagree		14	21	26	29	28
Strongly disagree		6	9	9	5	6

A slightly larger proportion of First Year students responded in the affirmative to a statement regarding their enjoyment of work at high school. Conceivably, this trend may not be apparent midway or towards the end of the school year. The "newness" of high school may well be acting as a halo over the First Year students' impressions of high school.

In their replies to the statement, "I definitely dislike school", the Second and Third Year students provide a response consistent with evidence presented earlier in the Report. Fifty-six per cent of Second Year students compared with 70 per cent of Fifth Year students were prepared to disagree with this statement. Table 6.6 provides a breakdown of the student replies.

TABLE 6.6

EXTENT OF STUDENT DISLIKE OF SCHOOL—BY YEAR LEVEL

Statement: "I definitely dislike school"	N =	Year 1 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298	Year 4 593	Year 5 372
		%	%	%	%	%
Strongly agree		7	9	9	3	5
Agree		9	11	12	10	8
Uncertain		15	18	16	16	14
Disagree		41	37	43	46	45
Strongly disagree		24	19	15	23	25

Improving school

Few students have revolutionary attitudes towards the way schools should be run. Most students are prepared to accept the school as a worth-while institution in the community, even if some of them are not happy with certain aspects of their attendance at the institution. As Tenenbaum (1944) noted, the school is primarily a receiver of attitudes, not a creator of them. He writes: "The child comes to school with preconceived notions of how to regard school and tries to get, and thinks he gets, from school what the community expects the school to give." This observation would seem to explain why students, when provided when an opportunity to record how they would improve school, seemed to concern themselves with matters only vaguely related to the proper educational function of the school. Most students did not consider changes to school organization or curricula. Complaints with matters pertaining to authority and control dominated, though the preceding questionnaire items concerning discipline may to some extent have preconditioned and determined this type of response.

A representative sample of student suggestions for the improvement of school is detailed below.

Third Year girl—I would make school so that it was not compulsory. And when coming to school you could choose your own subjects. And at what level.

Second Year boy—I would make all the lessons more interesting, and give more holidays. I would also put a ban on homework.

Third Year girl—I would change some of the silly rules like you can't carry your bag over your shoulder and you can't smoke and other things, too.

Third Year girl—Change the old teachers and teachers who have little control over students. Have more activities in the school during recess and lunch time, *e.g.*, dancing, records and general mixing.

Third Year boy—I dislike the Achievement Certificate because you have to be at your best all the time. Whereas the Junior you only have to study at one time.

Second Year boy—I would not make unerforms conpulsory because you come to school to learn not to ware the same cloths.

Third Year girl—I would see that their is more discipline and that every student wear a uniform if possible.

First Year girl—First I would get new and better teachers get good equipment for sports have nice green lawn new desks and when a desk got written on sandpaper them and re-varnish have a good piano and musical intrements for the music room.

Third Year girl—(I would do) for the typing room I would have proper typist chairs and then you would have eager time for learning typing. Make teachers wear longer dressers so that you couldn't see their pants when they bend down to a student at a desk (the younger ones).

Third Year boy—Make sure the teachers did not punish students by making fun of the student in front of the class.

Fourth Year girl—I think we (the 4th and 5th years) get a fair deal (entertainment, etc.) but the 1st to 3rd years who are at school for a *compulsory* period get almost *nil* as far as that goes. This makes their attitudes to school worsten—surely!

Fifth Year girl—Rid the system of the necessity of studying and learning just to pass an exam. Introduce subjects, and activities with them, which would a quip a student in everyday living when he leaves school.

Fourth Year girl—Students would have more say in school matters and more freedom around the school. Subjects would be made more interesting and there would be less accent on assignments done at home.

Third Year girl—I would let the students have more say in organizing and controlling the school such as a school Council, where the students have more say in matter and is not always pressured by a teacher.

Fourth Year girl—Teachers. They should be ready to help you with any problems you have. They should try to make lessons interesting instead of an "I'm giving you this lesson because I'm paid for it and I suppose I should earn my wage" attitude.

Among the thousands of recommendations made by students for improving school were many countervailing arguments and ideas. Lower school students were typically more concerned with the more superficial aspects of their education, such as school uniforms, and did not seem either interested or able to suggest changes that would radically alter school organization or the content or scope of courses of study available to them. Many of the suggestions made by upper school students tended to be equally facile, though in fairness to these students the time limits that were imposed may have limited the scope of their answers. A consensus of upper school student written opinion favoured the provision of greater opportunity for students to make decisions about what they do in school. Yet most of these matters over which students wanted autonomy, either complete or shared with teachers, were very minor refinements of the existing school situation. They were, in essence, irritations such as the compulsory wearing of school uniforms, rather than constructive proposals regarding means of improving teacher-pupil relationships, modifying curricula or restructuring classroom organization.

Alienation from school

A number of teachers commented on a prevailing apathy towards school-based activities among a large segment of the high school student population. Many students appear to be opting out of the struggle for high achievement marks. The threat of a poor academic report seems easily dismissed, thereby imposing a strain on the teacher, for what rewards can be substituted for the carrot of school success? What is more, little attempt is made to disguise this feeling from the teacher.

This detachment in school may be a symptom of the larger picture of psychological discontent rather than a specific malfunction of school operation.

It is not always possible to determine the full complexion of this alienation. Seeman (1959) has proposed that the syndrome of alienation may be composed of specific factors—inability to control or bring about desired outcomes; inability to understand the events in which he is engaged; the assignment of low reward value to goals which are usually highly valued in a given society; the inability to find self-rewarding activities that interest him; a belief that the norms of society have little to do with governing the individual's behaviour. Thus, whether estranged from society as a whole or particularly from the social system of the school, the alienated adolescent is engulfed with feelings of mistrust, misfortune and rejection.

Analysis of questionnaire results and comment revealed that student dissatisfaction with school may run deeper than a superficial dislike of certain school requirements and activities. For example, of the 5,062 students surveyed, 11 per cent found school boring and 41 per cent "neither interesting nor disinteresting". Forty-five per cent of students expressed agreement with the statement that "whatever happens in this school happens no matter what I do. It is like the weather, there is nothing I can do about it". Twenty-one per cent of students responded that they agreed with the statement "nobody listens to the suggesions I make or the things I say at school". Twenty-three per cent of students disagreed with the statement, "The subjects in this school are extremely valuable to me".

While school attendance remains compulsory, the possibility is increased that some students will regard their stay as a waste of time. Even if a student were anxious to become a fully participating member of society, there would be no guarantee that he would regard the school, with its imposed discipline and formal teaching procedures, as instrumental in attaining that goal.

Besag (1966) proposes several courses of action that the school might pursue to ameliorate the effects of alienation. These include special attention given to students in order to impress upon them the value of education to their own lives and the school's desire to aid them, and to increase their future-orientation. These measures can be best effected with small-group instruction or even on an individual student counselling basis where the teacher may provide an identifiable image of success. Jackson (1965) believes that a greater clarification of scholastic goals would help reduce some of the uncertainty that is likely to contribute to the development of student indifference. However, many disturbances in the classroom are due to a failure to meet student role expectations rather than from failure to meet academic standards. Kounin and Gump (1958), from an observational study of kindergarten children, found that when teachers made their expectations clear, defined rules precisely, and suggested positive actions the misbehaving child might take, the incidence of unruly behaviour diminished.

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Questionnaire responses

In order to gauge the nature of discipline problems that confront the majority of teachers, 28 representative behaviour problems were presented to teachers with instructions to rate each behaviour according to its frequency of occurrence, seriousness, troublesomeness and pattern of occurrence. Table 6.7, *Ranking of*

Teachers' Perceptions of School Behaviour Problems, provides in summary form the outcome of this facet of the survey. To arrive at the rankings, the mean intensity of rating for each behaviour was calculated and then converted to a ranking. The lower rankings (closer to zero) are indicative of those behaviours which occur most frequently and seriously, are most troublesome to deal with and are of increasing incidence.

In addition to rating the behaviours, teachers were asked to specify the sex of the predominant offender. The sex of the student is indicated adjacent to each behaviour ranking in Table 6.7.

TABLE 6.7

RANKING OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS (N = 2,268)

	Most frequent	Most serious	Most trouble-some	Increasing incidence	Sex of student*
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	26	19	27	18	M
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	9	20	11	2	M
3. Unauthorized borrowing of another student's equipment, materials, etc.	12	24	26	19	M
4. Complying with authority slowly (e.g. moving from a prohibited area only after continual requests from the teacher)	7	10	3	3	M
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	6	25	14	16	E
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons	1	13	1	4	M
7. Use of an obscenity that can easily be overheard by a teacher	24	5	17	13	M
8. Damaging school property (e.g. carving on a desk)	21	1	8	8	M
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	8	12	10	7	E

* M = Male. F = Female. E = Either male or female.

	Most frequent	Most serious	Most trouble-some	Increasing incidence	Sex of student
10. Making "smart" comments about a teacher that may be overheard by the teacher as he/she walks down corridors or some part of the school building	20	21	22	14	M
11. Non-compliance with *school* rules. (Inadequate standards of dress, smoking, trespassing in prohibited area, etc.)	2	15	2	1	M
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than the student's capability	3	14	5	9	M
13. Telling deliberate lies	22	6	12	23	M
14. Cheating	19	9	23	27	E
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	27	2	13	17	E
16. Creating a disturbance in class (laughing, giggling, whispering, talking, etc.)	4	17	6	6	F
17. Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question	18	11	16	12	M
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.)	10	22	24	20	M
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warnings of punishment	17	3	4	10	M
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	28	4	21	28	M
21. Obscene writing, obscene drawing, obscene note passing, etc.	25	8	20	22	M
22. Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust	16	27	28	21	M
23. Sullenness	14	28	25	25	F

	Most frequent	Most serious	Most trouble-some	Increasing incidence	Sex of student
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class or school rules	23	7	9	15	M
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	13	26	18	26	F
26. Bullying or feuding among students....	15	16	15	24	M
27. Ridiculing established school activities	11	23	19	11	M
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	5	18	7	5	E

The most frequently occurring problems

The most frequently occurring disciplinary problems nominated by teachers, consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons, non-compliance with school rules (inadequate standards of dress, smoking, etc), completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than the student's capability, creating a disturbance in class (laughing, giggling, whispering, talking, etc.), and coming late for lessons are not symptomatic of the "blackboard jungle" syndrome, but rather are typical of problems that have irritated teachers over centuries of formal education. These behaviours are, however, not only occurring frequently, but are also considered to be increasing in their incidence relative to the other disciplinary problems.

Several factors may explain the weighting given by teachers to these particular behaviours. Coming late and failure to come equipped for lessons are likely to be a product of both school size and cross setting. The implementation of the Achievement Certificate has generally meant a greater movement of students within schools owing to the instability of class groupings. In large schools the problems of students arriving late and ill-equipped are heightened by the fact that students may have to travel further to lockers and cover greater distances in moving to different classrooms.

This explanation is supported by evidence contained in Table 6.8.

It is evident that larger proportions of teachers in large high schools believe that students come late and ill-equipped for lessons.

Non-compliance with rules

More than a fifth of secondary school teachers believe that non-compliance with school rules is one of the most frequently occurring forms of student misbehaviour and is also a form that is increasing in incidence. It should be noted, however, that the infractions against school rules to which teachers are referring are not considered to be of an especially serious nature, for this form of misbehaviour is ranked only fifteenth (Table 6.7) among the 28 behaviours in terms of its seriousness.

TABLE 6.8

PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS IN VARIOUS CATEGORIES RESPONDING THAT PARTICULAR BEHAVIOURS OCCURRED VERY FREQUENTLY

Category of teachers	School size		Year level		Sex of teacher		Teaching experience		Discipline a problem	
	400-600	1,400 +	2nd	5th	Male	Female	1 year	10 years	Very much	Not at all
Number of teachers	200	447	318	185	1,290	997	239	585	199	790
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Type of behaviour										
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	1	1	2	0	1	2	2	2	6	1
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	4	5	5	0	5	8	14	3	26	1
3. Unauthorised borrowing	7	8	9	5	8	9	12	6	23	4
4. Complying with authority slowly	3	13	8	8	10	11	12	9	29	5
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	7	6	5	5	7	5	10	6	17	9
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped	16	24	20	8	18	22	27	16	41	10
7. Use of an obscenity	1	1	2	2	2	2	5	1	8	1
8. Damaging school property	1	5	3	2	4	3	3	4	11	3
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	7	8	11	2	8	9	22	5	30	1
10. Making "smart" comments	3	2	5	1	4	2	7	3	13	2
11. Non-compliance with *school* rules	14	26	22	21	21	20	16	23	36	15
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than the student's capability	5	10	9	3	9	7	11	6	26	3
13. Telling deliberate lies	1	3	3	4	4	2	5	3	9	2
14. Cheating	1	2	1	0	2	1	1	2	7	0
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	0	1	1	1	1	2	4	1	6	1
16. Creating a disturbance in class	8	11	12	3	9	12	25	5	33	2
17. Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question	0	3	4	1	2	3	7	1	12	1
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity	2	8	8	3	6	7	9	6	18	3
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warning	3	3	5	2	4	4	9	4	18	1
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	2	1
21. Obscene writing, drawing, notes	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	6	1
22. Making frequent petty criticisms	0	4	4	2	4	4	7	2	13	1
23. Sullenness	2	3	4	1	3	3	7	2	11	1
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class or schools rules	1	4	3	3	4	2	3	4	12	2
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	2	2	2	1	3	3	6	3	12	1
26. Bullying or feuding among students	3	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	8	2
27. Ridiculing school activities	3	10	3	8	7	5	3	6	17	4
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	6	11	12	8	11	11	15	7	30	4

In accounting for the incidence of this form of misbehaviour, several explanations come to mind—there may be too many school rules; the school rules may have become obsolete because of changes in community *mores*; the school rules may not be properly known; students may now be more questioning of institutionalized adult authority.

Locke recognized three centuries ago that the imposition of a large number of rules could become self-defeating:

> Let therefore your Rules to your son be as few as possible, and rather fewer than more than seem absolutely necessary. For if you burden him with many Rules, one of these two things must necessarily follow; that either he must be very often punished, which will be of ill Consequence, by making Punishment too frequent and familiar; or else you must let the Transgressions of some of your Rules go unpunished, whereby they will of course grow contemptible, and your Authority become cheap to him.

This dilemma must frequently confront principals—should one try to enforce rules that have limited acceptance among teachers, students and community? Authority in schools should not be used arbitrarily.

The school rule relating to uniforms is a case in point. Sixteen per cent of principals do not insist on lower school students wearing the school uniform, and 28 per cent. of principals do not enforce the wearing of school uniforms among upper school students. Sixty per cent of students reported that they should be able to decide themselves whether or not they wear a school uniform. Twenty-eight per cent of parents responded that uniforms should not be made compulsory for lower school students, and 44 per cent of parents responded that upper school students should not be compelled to wear uniforms. These statistics demonstrate the ambivalence of opinion that exists among teachers, students, administrators and parents regarding this contentious issue. The question of smoking is almost as vexatious. The enforcement of rules with such limited acceptance must only exacerbate the disciplinary process in schools. A fuller discussion of school rules is to be found in Chapter 5, Education Regulations Relating to Discipline.

Student apathy

The next categories of behaviours reported by teachers to be most frequently occurring relate to student apathy and lack of interest in classroom activities—behaviours 12 (completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than the student's capability), 5 (half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm) and 25 (withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate). These relatively frequently occurring behaviours, though not considered especially serious by teachers, may be symptomatic of the real malaise that many observers feel has infected school systems within the past decade. There are groups of students who are intellectually and emotionally detaching themselves from school affairs. The school social system is not able to reward those students whose behaviour is inconsistent with its professed aims. The student alienated from the adult society may seek reward through the status system of a disaffected adolescent sub-culture operating both within and outside the school. The alienated student, who has little feeling of belonging to the school, an inability to foresee the usefulness of his schooling and a feeling of futility regarding what school offers may well graduate into adult society with these well-entrenched attitudes. Providing he acquiesces, even if grudgingly, the school system may count him one of its moderate successes. To believe that the student has rationally adopted this position of detachment is to make a gross misinterpretation of the situation. Unfortunately, some teachers and many members of the public take this stance. Consistent and intense withdrawal should be considered a symptom of maladjustment with potentially the most serious overtones. In this context, the ranking of the behaviour, "withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate", as 26th in order of seriousness is viewed with some concern by the Committee.

Questioning authority

Behaviours 16, 4, and 9 (creating a disturbance in class; complying with authority slowly, tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order) are relatively frequently occurring and troublesome to deal with, and are increasing in incidence for many teachers. In a sense, these behaviours represent a potential erosion of what has been traditional teacher authority. The evidence suggests that students are becoming more conscious of the limits of a teacher's authority and more ready to question directions. Teachers who may have relied on automatic and unthinking compliance with an instruction find that justifications and explanations are first required. In the event of a clash of wills, the teacher will usually prevail, but not before the student has made at least a token resistance.

It is not the more serious challenges of teacher authority such as threats of violence, using offensive language, and the like, which characterize current school discipline problems. These sorts of behaviour, while unpleasant to experience, are relatively easily dealt with by teachers, since, by virtue of their seriousness, they become the collective responsibility of the school administration, and the negative sanctions that the school administration may apply are explicit and widely accepted by the school and wider community. The behaviour, "insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher", was considered by teachers to be least frequently occurring, and least increasing in incidence (among the 28 behaviours listed).

LOCATION OF THE PROBLEM

Teacher perceptions

In the responses given in questionnaires, teachers, administrators and students were virtually unanimous in stating that the majority of discipline problems in schools occur in the lower school (i.e. First, Second and Third Years) and in particular at the Second Year level. Compared with the lower school, the incidence of discipline problems occurring in the upper school (Fourth and Fifth Year) is almost negligible. Table 6.9 indicates teachers' opinions regarding the year level in which students are most disruptive.

TABLE 6.9

TEACHER DESIGNATION BY YEAR LEVEL OF MOST DISRUPTIVE STUDENTS

Year level	Teacher responses
	%
First Year	6
Second Year	57
Third Year	32
Fourth Year	2
Fifth Year	1

The figures in this table indicate that of the 2,062 teachers who completed the Teacher Questionnaire, only one per cent nominated Fifth Year students as providing the major source of discipline problems in schools. Similar opinion is given with regard to the Fourth and First Year levels, with one and six per cent of responses respectively. It is clear that most teachers consider that the Second, and to a lesser extent the Third Years, are the source of the "most disruptive" students. In view of the coverage given by the mass media to student activism and the widely expressed opinion that this militancy was filtering down through the tertiary institutions into secondary schools, this finding is useful in delineating the real disciplinary problem. It is not a movement of a militant political nature challenging the established function of schooling. While students may be more critical of the way they are being educated, the most difficult problems involve students relatively inarticulate of their proper role in society.

Administrator perceptions

The view of teachers that the preponderance of discipline problems occur at the Second Year level is supported by responses given in the Administrator Questionnaire.

Figure 6.2 sets out responses by school administrators to the question, "In what year level do you find students most disruptive and difficult to deal with?"

The responses to this question clearly indicate that administrators perceive the incidence of students who are "disruptive and difficult to deal with" to be greatest at the Second Year level, especially with female students. Most of those respondents who did not specifically nominate Second Year as the main problem still chose lower school rather than upper school.

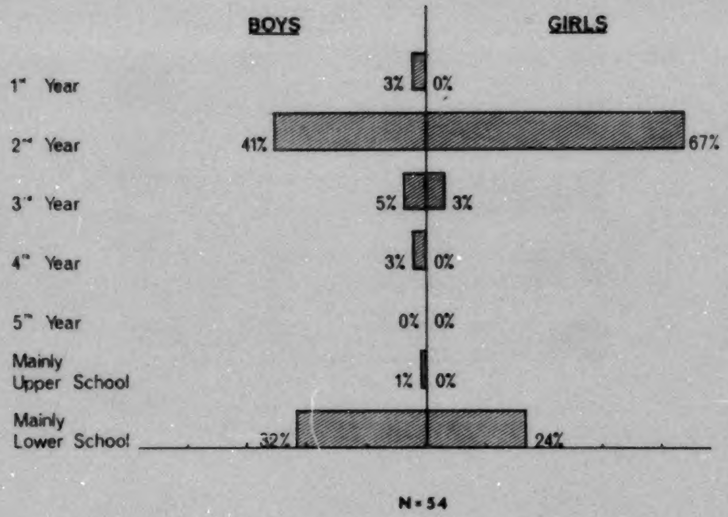


FIGURE 6.2. RESPONSE BY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS TO THE QUESTION, "IN WHAT YEAR LEVEL DO YOU FIND STUDENTS MOST DISRUPTIVE AND DIFFICULT TO DEAL WITH?"

Student perceptions

Table 6.9 and Figure 6.2, which report teacher and administrator perceptions regarding the location of discipline problems, established the Second Year level as that in which most cases of extreme indiscipline occur. Evidence from the responses in the Student Questionnaire provides further confirmation of this finding.

Figure 6.3 shows student responses by year level to the question, "Are your lessons interrupted by students playing up?"

The responses in this figure demonstrate that the climate of lower school classrooms is substantially less work oriented than that of upper school classrooms. Even though the descriptor "often" is open to a variety of interpretations, the large proportions of lower school students opting for this alternative to describe interruptions to lessons is of concern. In view of this evidence, it is not surprising that nearly one-third of the students expressed dissatisfaction with the state of discipline in their school.

Male versus female offenders

In general, administrators, unlike teachers, are more inclined to view girls producing disruptive behaviour difficult to deal with. This difference between

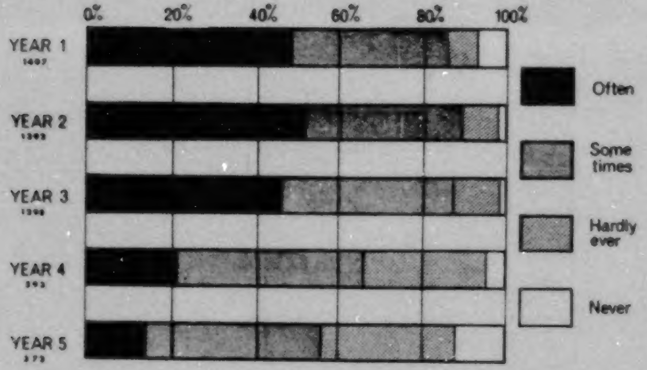


FIGURE 6.3. RESPONSES OF STUDENTS BY YEAR LEVEL TO QUESTION, "ARE YOUR LESSONS INTERRUPTED BY STUDENTS PLAYING UP?"

administrators and teachers can be understood in terms of their differing roles. It is the expectation of most students who are referred to the school administration as a result of some classroom misbehaviour that they will be punished. For male offenders, corporal punishment is used as a means of satisfying all parties that justice has been done. For female offenders over the age of twelve, corporal punishment is forbidden in schools. Deviant girls, therefore, may behave without the threat of corporal punishment as an extrinsic control. Thus for deputy principals there exists corporal punishment, an attractively simple means of dealing with indiscipline, a course of action not available for principal mistresses. Comment was made by principals and principal mistresses on this discrepancy in methods of punishment when outlining the dilemma of dealing with deviant adolescent girls.

EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

Measuring the extent of indiscipline

The frequency with which school rules are broken and norms transgressed, while useful in gaining some understanding of indiscipline in schools, is not necessarily a satisfactory index of school discipline problems. An important dimension of discipline that is overlooked by merely considering incidence of behaviour is whether the school system is able, or considers it desirable, to react to contraventions of school rules. Some teachers, for example, because of the congruence between their own socio-cultural backgrounds and those of their students, may construe a particular violation of a school rule as trivial or normal and not as a threat to their own role as supervisor of learning. Other teachers, in a similar situation, may react quite differently and invoke the use of some form of negative sanction. A breakdown in school discipline will occur when sanctions invoked by a teacher fail to suppress the behaviour to the satisfaction of others disrupted from the learning process or of those responsible for maintaining the learning functions of the school.

Implications for research

In terms of documenting the nature and extent of disciplinary problems in Western Australian high schools the implications of the above are twofold:

(1) A measure of the frequency of contraventions of school rules may only reflect the vigilance with which rules are enforced.

(2) The aggregate of the number of perceptions of different teachers, or students, is not always a satisfactory index of the extent of problems of indiscipline, since individual teachers inevitably adopt different criteria when determining the character of disciplinary incidents.

The interpretation of statistics in the following analyses should be tempered by these considerations.

Teachers' opinions

Teachers' views of the extent of discipline problems in high schools were largely determined from written comments attached to questionnaires, and from responses to a single multiple-choice questionnaire item.

Item 14 of the Teacher Questionnaire asked, "Are disciplinary matters a source of worry to you when you teach?". Table 6.10 details percentage responses of the 2,062 teachers who responded to this item.

TABLE 6.10

TEACHER RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION "ARE DISCIPLINARY MATTERS A SOURCE OF WORRY TO YOU WHEN YOU TEACH?"
N = 2,268

Responses	%
Yes, very much so	8
Yes, a little	46
Undecided	9
No, not at all	34

The substantive significance of the percentage responses to each alternative in the Table cannot be easily evaluated. The results can only be interpreted against a reasoned expection of what would be an "alarming" response. Statistical tests of signficance will not answer this question.

In view of the differences in background and competence that one would expect to find among teachers (as among any professional body), the variations in background and school interest among students and the realization that disciplinary problems have always been a feature of the school situation, the results probably do not represent a cause for alarm regarding the incidence of disciplinary problems. Less than one-twelfth of Western Australian secondary school teachers indicate that they are encountering disciplinary problems which are causing them "much worry". The characteristics of these teachers and the particular situations in which these problems occur are treated more fully elsewhere in this Report.

Differences among schools

Analysis of Question 14 by school does indicate that the proportions of teachers within schools experiencing disciplinary problems vary widely. Figure 6.4 presents two extreme sets of responses.

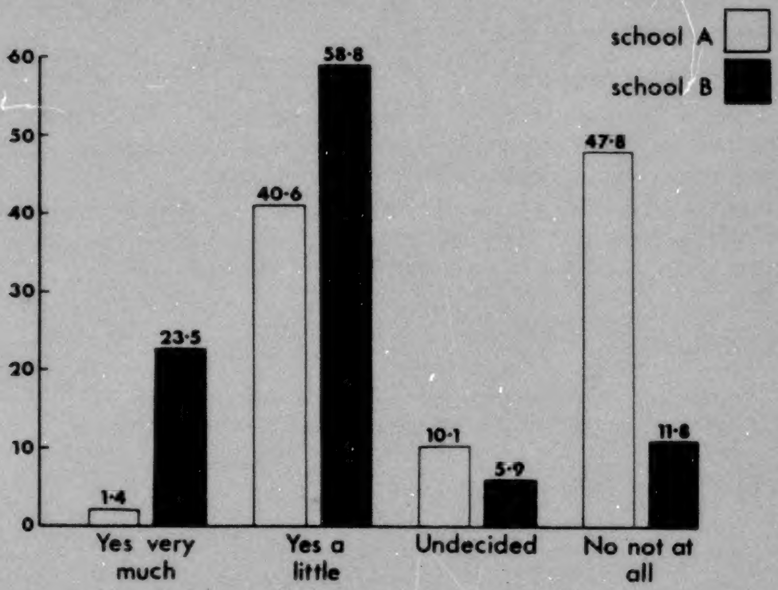


FIGURE 6.4. TEACHER RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "ARE DISCIPLINARY MATTERS A SOURCE OF WORRY TO YOU WHEN YOU TEACH?" SCHOOLS A AND B.

It may be seen from this figure that there is a considerable difference between the two schools with regard to the attitude of the staff towards school discipline problems. Thus, although in Western Australia generally disciplinary problems do not appear to be a serious source of worry to most teachers, it is evident that in selected schools there may be more cause for concern.

Administrators' opinions

The perceptions of high school administrators of the extent of indiscipline problems in secondary schools were canvassed separately. It is to be expected that principals, deputy principals and principal mistresses, because of their extra-classroom duties, perceive school discipline from a position not available to teachers. Administrators have the responsibility of enforcing school rules and of mediating disputes between classroom teachers and students where the discipline process has broken down. In the Administrator Questionnaire, information was sought on the frequency of serious disciplinary incidents in schools. The question specifically asked was, "How often do disciplinary matters which you consider to be of a serious nature occur in your school?". Table 6.11 sets out the percentage responses obtained for this question.

TABLE 6.11

ADMINISTRATOR RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "HOW OFTEN DO DISCIPLINARY MATTERS WHICH YOU CONSIDER TO BE OF A SERIOUS NATURE OCCUR IN YOUR SCHOOL?"
N = 54

Response	%
Very frequently	0
Often	13
Sometimes	61
Seldom	26
Never	0

A majority of school administrators expressed the view that disciplinary matters of a serious nature did not occur frequently in their schools. The data in Table 6.11 supports evidence gained from the analysis of the responses from the Teacher Questionnaire which indicated that serious disciplinary situations are not occurring with alarming frequency in most Western Australian high schools. This overall judgment must, however, be tempered with the realization that 13 per cent of administrators believe that these occur "often" in their schools.

School administrators were also asked whether they considered serious disruptive disciplinary problems were increasing in their school. Table 6.12 sets out percentage responses by administrators to this question.

TABLE 6.12

ADMINISTRATOR RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "DO YOU CONSIDER THE INCIDENCE OF SERIOUS DISRUPTIVE DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS IS INCREASING IN YOUR SCHOOL?"
N = 54

Response	%
Yes, the incidence is increasing	39
The incidence is fairly stable	41
No, the incidence is decreasing	11
There are no serious disruptive disciplinary problems	7

The Table indicates that there is wide divergence of opinion regarding the answer to this question. The responses on the part of 41 per cent of high school administrators that the incidence of indiscipline is stable and of 11 per cent that it is decreasing does not support the alarm expressed in many quarters regarding the general breakdown of school discipline. This is not to say that the maintenance of acceptable levels of discipline is not an administrative problem. Rather, this evidence, along with the written comments of school administrators, suggests that, while established patterns of teacher-student relationships are being subjected to new and probably increasing pressures, the majority of principals are satisfied that they are able to cope with these situations.

A dual discipline problem

Further, at the administrative level, examination of responses by each school uncovers an apparent contradiction between the perceptions of teachers and their school administrators. Seven principals reported that discipline problems occurred very frequently in their school, yet in order of the degree "that teachers perceive discipline not to be a problem when they teach", the seven schools were ranked 12th, 13th, 16th, 23rd, 36th, 41st and 44th of the 53 high schools which responded. While it is possible that some school administrators are remote from the problems of their staff, the more likely explanation is that teachers and administrators have used different criteria in evaluating the extent of indiscipline.

Principals, deputy principals and principal mistresses, by virtue of their status position, are more concerned with overt contraventions of school rules or with particular students, who, on account of persistent or serious violations of school regulations or classroom norms, have been referred to them by teachers. The channelling of these cases to the school authorities generally occurs because only administrators have been vested with the legal authority to administer corporal punishment and, in extreme cases, to arrange for the suspension of students from school. Thus school administrators are more likely to interact with students who have seriously or persistently disrupted the school situation rather than with the "average" student guilty of occasional and less serious infractions of classroom norms.

Evidence from the questionnaires would suggest that there is only a moderate correlation between the location of extremely disruptive students in schools and the existence of a large proportion of teachers who find discipline a problem when they teach. It may well be that the explanation lies in the existence of a dual discipline problem in schools—the first involves a small hard-core of students who are frequently referred to school principals and deputies, and the second is a more general malaise. In many respects the former problem is easier to deal with since the extreme contravention of school rules evokes a predictable response, usually some form of punishment, from school authorities. This action is likely to have substantial backing from teachers and from a large body of students. For example, it was most noticeable in the questionnaires that students responded with considerable unanimity, even across year levels, when asked how behaviour such as vandalism should be dealt with. There was general acceptance of the seriousness of the misdemeanour and agreement regarding the severity of the punishment that should be administered. Table 6.13 sets out by year level the percentage responses given by students to the question, "Which of the following punishments should be given to a student who is guilty of vandalism (e.g. smashing school furniture)?"

TABLE 6.13

RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING PUNISHMENTS SHOULD BE GIVEN TO A STUDENT WHO IS GUILTY OF VANDALISM (e.g. SMASHING SCHOOL FURNITURE)?"

Response	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Do nothing	2	2	2	1	....
Given a talking to	9	9	9	9	11
Kept in, or given extra work to do	5	5	5	6	9
Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl)	35	35	32	26	19
Suspended	47	46	50	56	56

Though the distinction between hard-core deviance and general disciplinary problems is perhaps artificial and somewhat arbitrary, there was further evidence among the written responses appended to Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires to support it.

Table 6.14 sets out percentage responses given by school administrators to the question, "Sometimes a student stands out for his repeated misbehaviours and confrontations with school authorities. He is most troublesome for all or nearly all teachers who must deal with him. How many disruptive students of this type are there in your school at the present time?"

TABLE 6.14

RESPONSES TO QUESTION RELATING TO THE NUMBER OF EXTREMELY DISRUPTIVE STUDENTS IN SCHOOL
N = 54

Response	%
There is none	3
1–2	5
3–5	28
6–10	30
11–15	13
15 or more	18

Though this question is couched in language likely to elicit a conservative estimate of numbers of extreme discipline cases in schools, the paucity of those cases is supported by statistics describing students suspended from school in 1971. Suspension from schools is a sanction invoked only in cases of extreme student indiscipline. Table 6.15 sets out the numbers of suspensions from schools during the year 1971. In some cases a single incident may have resulted in the suspension of more than one student.

TABLE 6.15

NUMBER OF SUSPENSIONS FROM SCHOOLS DURING 1971

Number of students suspended	% of high schools recording suspensions
0	45
1–2	26
3–5	22
6–10	3
10 or more	1

The data in Table 6.15 indicate that in 45 per cent of Western Australian high schools no student was suspended for breaches of school discipline. In a further 48 per cent, between one and five were suspended. Only 4 per cent of schools reported having had six or more suspensions. It would seem from these data that, at the administrative level, extreme student deviance has hardly reached a crisis level throughout Western Australian high schools. Inspection of the statistics relating to suspensions over the period 1968 to 1971 substantiates this finding. There has not been a dramatic increase in the incidence of hard-core deviance.

TABLE 6.16

NUMBER OF STUDENTS SUSPENDED 1968–1971

	1971		1970		1969		1968	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
First Year	6	2	4	2	2	2	3	3
Second Year	11	10	15	14	14	4	10	1
Third Year	8	5	11	8	2	1	8	4
Fourth Year	1	0	2	0	5	0	7	0
Fifth Year....	1	1	16	0	1	0	2	3
Others	16*	18*	2* 14**	....	11*	7*	11*	....
Sub totals	43	36	64	24	35	14	41	11
Total	79		88		49		52	

* Year of schooling not recorded.

** Fifth Year students suspended for one day as a result of a single incident at one school.

The fact that Second Year students, and boys more than girls, are the main offenders, according to the number of suspensions as well as other criteria described in this Report, could well be the subject of further research.

CONCLUSION

Because maintaining control is such a fundamental and pervasive component of the educative process, attention is continually focused on discipline. Changing community attitudes and standards will from time to time impinge on the social systems of the school and alter the nature of hitherto traditional teacher-student relationships. Where teachers resist the influences of social change, they must face increasing pressures in maintaining adequate classroom control.

Most of the control problems faced by teachers in Western Australian high schools are essentially similar to those faced by their predecessors in earlier decades; they have always had to cope with churlish student behaviour. In the limited environment of a classroom for long periods of the day, numbers of adolescents must be coerced into complying with school behavioural norms to which they only partially subscribe. Further, this compulsion to follow adult dictates comes at a stage of development when students are becoming aware of their adult roles, with their concomitant freedoms and responsibilities, which they must soon assume.

There would, however, appear to be a new dimension in high school student control. Compounded with this age-old problem of adolescence is the prevalent tendency in our society to question the social order and authority. Slogans using such terms as "freedom", "right" and "democracy" have found their way into popular student usage. The effect has been that now, in many classrooms, students are expecting explanations for teacher directions where in the past their counterparts complied unhesitatingly. This erosion of traditional teacher authority means that new thought must be given by educators to defining means of attaining satisfactory teacher-student relationships. The Committee believes that this will be accomplished in large measure by investing students with more responsibility for their behaviour in schools.

CHAPTER 7

PUNISHMENT

THE NATURE OF THE PUNISHMENT

Introduction

The question of punishing students is an emotive topic apt to polarize opinion. Advocates either grudgingly or vehemently support punishment as a means of maintaining order in the school, but those who oppose punishment see it as an unnecessary and sometimes injurious procedure for gaining overt classroom control at the cost of repressing the development of responsibility in students. Often discussions of punishment are superficial and relate only to one aspect—the administration of corporal punishment. In fact, the concept of punishment is much broader and involves more than the deliberate application of physical pain.

Flew (1954) defines "punishment" as containing the following elements: (i) It must involve unpleasantness for the receiver. (ii) It must be for an offence. (iii) It must be of an offender. (iv) It must be administered by human agency. (v) It must be administered by proper authority. Powell (1970) argues that the concept of punishment needs this careful definition since "the infliction of unpleasantness on others is a *prima facie* evil and any form of punishment stands in need of justification". Hence where punishment is to be justified as a necessary evil then it must be shown capable of deterring or reforming offenders.

While the Committee accepts this definition of punishment as properly conceived, the broader questions of social control and unpleasantness associated with teacher/student relationships, where the teacher is the instrument of the unpleasantness and the student the object, are considered relevant in the discussion. Ethical questions of should students be punished and if so, by what means, will be considered in the light of current classroom practices. Flew's definition of punishment is of value in determining whether forms of punishment currently sanctioned by regulations are in any way abused by teachers.

Authority and punishment

Because formal education must take place mainly with groups of students interacting with teachers in classrooms, order is necessary if effective learning is to take place. Interruption and distraction must be minimized. Society has given teachers the *role and the right to lead and control the learning* situations in classrooms; the school is a place where society expects order to prevail. The teacher must have authority and the right to be obeyed. He will be most effective when students voluntarily accept the exercise of a teacher's authority and acknowledge that they have a subordinate position in the learning process. Thus the teacher has a positional status in which rights and responsibilities are determined by the social structure.

The roots of a teacher's authority in a classroom may be found in tradition and education regulations. As well, it is derived from the exercise of the teacher's own personality and leadership and a respect engendered by his demonstrable professional skill. For these reasons students generally accept what a teacher tells them. As children enter adolescence, these bases from which authority can be derived become less stable and influential. The students, particularly in this era of rapid social change, are more prepared to question the legal basis of a teacher's authority. The law has become less sacrosanct and inviolable. Moreover, sometimes the public figures most idolized and imitated by adolescents are persons who have shown scant respect for traditional social *mores*. Peer groups, as Coleman (1961) and others have so adequately illustrated, often fail to reinforce school sanctioned norms; in many respects peer groups and schools are promoting conflicting philosophies. Under these conditions, the teacher's authority is tested and may require the exercise of coercive power.

Methods of control

Katz and Kahn (1966) note that an authority system can exist only if it is accepted by a majority of people in the social system. In practice, not all members of the social system will voluntarily accept the imposition of authority. Hence there must be an ancillary system of rewards and punishments.

Teachers have used a variety of means of manipulating the conflicting interests of groups of students who do not want to learn to conform to the classroom routine that they, the teachers, as leaders and experts, have prescribed as necessary. Control may be obtained through the use of rewards that have some material basis, such as marks, reports, prizes, privileges, reducing formal working sessions, and relaxing homework requirements. The teacher may offer inducements such as a film next lesson, visit to a library or resource centre, reading a story, allowing a break in the lesson during official school time, or allowing the lesson to finish early. Most teachers have this type of reward at their disposal during the course of their teaching.

Because of the importance to an adolescent of his status among his peers, teachers may attract student support by praising students in public or private, evoking group approval of the student's behaviour, appealing to the reputation of the student, approaching the student on adult terms, or occasionally adopting some form of idiom that is recognizable as that of the student's own reference group. Successful teachers could substantially develop this list of rewards that they are able to dispense while in the classroom. These are in fact the same rewards that the adolescent society administers and has incorporated in its social system.

There is a negative as well as a positive dimension of control. Privileges may be removed from students. Property may be confiscated. Additional work, detention, and impositions on the student's free time, such as yard duty, are a few of the deprivations that face students. Whereas exploitation of adolescent status and group consensus may be used in a positive vein, teachers may also negatively control student behaviour by encouraging disapproval of the behaviour by the students' reference group, by verbal controls such as sarcasm or by demonstrations of rejection or contempt.

Finally there is the physical component. Students may be coerced into complying through caning or removal from the class or even from the school altogether. The mere threat of some coercive action may be sufficient to produce the compliance desired.

So long as students who do not want to are compelled to attend school to learn, and while teachers feel responsible for forcing students to learn, then a system of rewards and punishment must be operated. Coercing students into complying by punishing deviant behaviour is preferable to disorder and, as such, has become a standard feature of classroom control. There is, however, a growing concern among educators and psychologists about the effects of certain forms of punishment on students, a questioning of what is really being achieved by punishment, and whether more acceptable forms of control are not just as viable.

The purpose of punishment

Clarke and McKenzie (1970, p.31) discuss four possible aims of punishment:

(1) To direct attention to alternative desirable responses which are reinforced promptly as they occur, thus encouraging the acquisition of approved behaviour.
(2) As a deterrent.
(3) To exact retribution.
(4) To be vindictive.

These writers regard the first aim of punishment as positive in that it aims to aid the acquisition of socially approved behaviour, and the remaining three purposes of punishment are negative in the sense that they are used to suppress unapproved behaviour. They argue that retribution and vindictiveness should have no part in the educative process. As the teacher has a responsibility for providing a classroom environment conducive to the learning of socially approved behaviour, few teachers who accept the morality of punishing students in principle would quibble over the legitimacy of the first two aims of punishment. There are many teachers, however, who would contend that the retributive function of punishment is valid in the classroom context. In their view, punishment is an essential part of the educative process in that it has an important retributive character that is necessary for the moral development of the student.

At school the student learns that punishment is that which is deserved as a result of pursuing a particular course of action. In this sense, punishment is what should (morally) follow from the pursuit of an immoral action. Wilson (1971) pursues this line of argument noting that not to punish when punishment is deserved is to disrespect the student as a person.

He writes:

> It is absurd to try to keep children in some sort of social vacuum empty of both punishment and reward, or to place them in the kind of socially sterilizing situation in which, while behaviour which deserves to succeed is applauded, whatever is deserving of failure is merely ignored.

Punishment, however, can be easily abused, argues Wilson, when it becomes merely a further device for social control, thereby disrespecting the way in which a particular activity is valued by the student. This view conceives of school discipline as having an important moral function and not merely a means of guaranteeing peace and order in the classroom.

This position is somewhat in contra-distinction to the stand taken by psychologists who hold that rewards and punishment are deliberately administered forms of positive or negative reinforcement introduced solely to control or modify behaviour. Instead, in Wilson's view, punishment is seen as one dimension of educative control in which the person being disciplined, as well as the one doing the disciplining, can see at least some value in the proposed order. Demanding a student to do something is not *teaching* him what to do; it is merely *telling* him.

The side-effects of punishment

Learning theorists would view punishment as one of several means of modifying deviant school behaviour. In psychological terms, punishment consists of the presentation of either physically or psychologically painful stimuli or withdrawal of pleasant stimuli when undesirable behaviour occurs. Most of the coercive aspects of teachers' power, whether caning, a reprimand or the confiscation of student property, are punishment in this sense. Critics of punishment in high school refer to its deleterious side effects. The unavoidable impact of these effects upon the persons involved in the punishment act are sufficient for these critics to depreciate its *automatic* use in most circumstances. Clarke and McKenzie write (p.45):

> In view of the lack of precise knowledge, the use of punishment *alone* to attempt to modify behaviour cannot be supported on either theoretical or practical grounds especially when alternative procedures are available which bring reliably predictable but slower changes in behaviour without unwanted side effects.

Clarizio and Yelon (1967) summarize some of the objections to punishment as a technique for behavioural modification.

(1) Punishment does not eliminate the response; it merely slows down the rate at which the troublesome behaviours are emitted.

(2) This technique serves notice to stop certain negative behaviours; it does not indicate what behaviours are appropriate in the situation.

(3) Aggressive behaviours on the punisher's part may provide an undesirable model for the subject.

(4) The emotional side effects of punishment, such as fear, tenseness and withdrawal, are maladaptive.

(5) Punishment serves as a source of frustration which is apt to elicit additional maladaptive behaviours.

These criticisms of punishment may seem to many teachers to be rather bland statements remote from the day to day hustle and bustle of classroom life. Translated into the classroom context, these findings suggest that the punishment of students may have several unfortunate side effects. Where the student is punished in order to learn a socially approved behaviour, he may, in fact, be engaged in learning a valueless activity designed to avoid detection while carrying on with his unapproved behaviour. The deviant student is pre-occupied with not being caught.

In addition, by focusing attention on the deviant act, the teacher may be subtly or unconsciously reinforcing the same behaviour for the students who are witnessing the episode. Often it may be better for the teacher to ignore behaviours that do not drastically interfere with learning or teaching, unless they in any way endanger other students.

As well, there is substantial evidence (Bandura and Walters, 1959) to suggest that students may model their aggressive behaviours on displays of aggression by adults employing physical punishment. Kounin and Gump (1961) lend further support to this finding. In their study, they observed that primary school students with punitive teachers manifested significantly more aggressive deviant behaviour involving physical harm to peers and damage to property than children with non-punitive teachers.

Students who are used to a form of classroom management dominated by control based on the application of coercive punishments may require substantial adjustment to succeed in a less punitive learning climate. Many teachers are aware of behaviour problems that seem to occur when they take charge of classrooms previously managed under strict authoritarian lines. The students have learnt to behave under the threat of punishment and, when the threat is removed, react by "letting off steam".

The list of potential side effects could be extended to include the development of undue levels of fear and anxiety among students, many of whom are mere spectators of the events. While punishment, by definition, will involve some degree of unpleasantness, the danger exists that, for some students, extremely intense or severe punishments could result in psychological trauma for the recipient. Apart from harming the child under this condition, the stress created may monopolize the focus of attention and subvert the intended effect of the punishment. Should this happen, then an impairment of the student's learning will almost inevitably result.

The case against the use of punishment in classrooms is not water-tight. Positively reinforcing appropriate student behaviour by rewarding the behaviour with praise or some concession and extinguishing the deviant behaviour by withdrawing reinforcement may not be sufficient even from a theoretical point of view. Ausubel (1957) points out that it is impossible for children to learn what is *not* approved and tolerated simply by generalizing in reverse from the approval they receive for behaviour that *is* acceptable. What is prescribed and approved must be reinforced by punishment as well as reward. The Plowden Report (1967) would also support the view that there are occasions when punishment is necessary. Punishment is viewed simply as a means of order—certainly not a cure for laziness or inattention. The Report notes that the excessive use of punishment of any kind should be regarded as an acknowledgment of someone's failure.

Historically, Western Australian high schools have evolved from a system where order was secured by coercion. Discipline was maintained almost exclusively by rules and regulations enforced by penalties. While many of these penalties—corporal punishment, detention and the like—are still employed in schools, their automatic implementation for breaches of school rules ought to be relatively rare occurrences thanks to a better understanding of the needs and developmental phases of the child.

Evidence presented later in this Report suggests that there are some teachers who are not sufficiently critical of the various forms of punishment which they employ. Their actions may well be based on their own experiences as students and a tradition of schooling that elevated, as a virtue, obedience with minimal forethought of the development of responsibility of action among students. It is unfortunate that punishment is often an easier means of obtaining student compliance than other control techniques.

PUNISHMENT IN WESTERN AUSTRALIAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Who is being punished?

Year level of students. The various forms of punishment that can be used in schools have already been outlined. Ten forms of punishment were selected for inclusion in the Student Questionnaire and students were asked to give their impressions of the frequency and effectiveness with which they were administered. In view of teachers' and administrators' responses that most discipline problems occurred in Second and Third Year high school, it is not surprising to find that proportionately most punishment is also administered in Second and Third Year.

Table 7.1, *Frequency and Type of Punishment by Year Level,* indicates the relative frequency with which students believe they were punished during first term for 1972.

TABLE 7.1
FREQUENCY AND TYPE OF PUNISHMENT BY YEAR LEVEL

		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
	N =	1407	1392	1298	593	372
		%	%	%	%	%
Decide how often you have been punished this year						
1. Physical punishment (e.g. with cane, ruler, or hand)	Very often	2	4	2	....	1
	Quite often	2	3	3	....	....
	Sometimes	5	7	7	1	2
	Hardly ever	11	13	12	5	4
	Never	77	70	74	92	91
2. Detention (e.g. kept in after school, during recess, during sports period, etc.)	Very often	2	4	2	....	....
	Quite often	2	5	4	1	1
	Sometimes	12	19	17	7	4
	Hardly ever	21	25	27	15	16
	Never	59	43	46	73	77
3. Suspended from school	Very often	....	....	....	....	....
	Quite often	....	....	....	....	....
	Sometimes	1	1	1	....	....
	Hardly ever	2	2	2	....	2
	Never	93	94	94	98	97
4. Lecture from the teacher in front of class	Very often	4	6	4	1	2
	Quite often	5	8	6	2	2
	Sometimes	15	20	19	15	14
	Hardly ever	20	24	27	24	15
	Never	52	39	42	56	66
5. Sent out of the classroom	Very often	3	6	5	1	1
	Quite often	3	8	7	2	1
	Sometimes	12	19	18	10	8
	Hardly ever	17	22	26	16	12
	Never	61	41	41	69	76
6. Note from the teacher or principal to your parents	Very often	1	1	....	....	....
	Quite often	....	1	....	....	....
	Sometimes	2	4	4	1	1
	Hardly ever	5	9	10	4	4
	Never	88	82	82	93	92
7. Extra school work (e.g. extra homework, set work during free periods)	Very often	5	7	4	1	1
	Quite often	4	7	6	3	2
	Sometimes	15	20	21	13	10
	Hardly ever	21	24	25	19	16
	Never	52	38	40	61	69

TABLE 7.1—continued

		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
	N =	1407	1392	1298	593	372
8. Yard duty (e.g. cleaning up the school yard during recess, etc.)	Very often	2	4	3	....	....
	Quite often	3	5	4	1	....
	Sometimes	10	15	14	3	3
	Hardly ever	19	22	21	10	6
	Never	62	51	55	84	88
9. Private talking to by the teacher, deputy principal or principal mistress	Very often	2	2	3	....	....
	Quite often	2	4	3	2	2
	Sometimes	7	11	13	7	8
	Hardly ever	17	21	20	17	17
	Never	69	58	59	72	70
10. Made fun of by the teacher with a sarcastic remark	Very often	4	7	5	4	4
	Quite often	3	6	6	5	5
	Sometimes	10	15	15	16	16
	Hardly ever	14	19	25	18	22
	Never	65	49	45	54	50

Except for perceiving sarcasm to be used more often, Fourth and Fifth Year students invariably report fewer negative sanctions of any sort applied against them. Most forms of punishment, then, are reserved for fourteen-year-old and fifteen-year-old adolescents, particularly boys.

Sex of students. Corporal punishment is almost exclusively administered to boys, though two per cent of girls report that at least "sometimes" they have been struck with the cane, ruler or hand. It is difficult to ascribe significance to the reporting of this small percentage of girls that they received physical punishment. The questionnaires cannot elicit the circumstances or severity with which the physical punishment is claimed to have taken place. If it did occur, then it was contrary to Education Department Regulations. It will be remembered that school administrators, both in their written comments and in response to particular questionnaire items, nominated extremely deviant girls rather than boys as the more difficult to deal with, contrary to the opinions of classroom teachers.

Other forms of punishment particularly reserved for boys were yard duty (76 per cent of females versus 48 per cent of males report never having been punished this way) and being sent from the classroom (62 per cent of females versus 44 per cent of males report never having been sent from the classroom). There are substantial sex differentiations favouring girls in all forms of punishment except suspension. While it might be expected that more boys would be punished than girls, since more teachers nominated boys than girls as major discipline problems, it would seem that there is an acceptance among numbers of teachers that punishment is more proper for boys than girls.

Certainly boys are already discriminated from girls with respect to the regulation pertaining to corporal punishment. This discrimination may well be a cultural heritage from earlier days where corporal punishment was seen as a means of developing character—students should learn to bear pain like a man. Today, this attitude does not seem defensible. If there exists a culturally prescribed norm that boys should learn their masculine roles through the infliction of pain then schools should lead society in redefining this norm.

Ability of students. Two criteria used in the questionnaire analysis to identify students frequently punished in school were the frequency with which children were sent to the deputy principal or principal mistress and the frequency with which students reported that they received some form of physical punishment. In either case, students punished by these methods were believed by teachers to be guilty of some serious offence which warranted some extreme form of punishment or to have exhibited behaviour so deviant that it was not readily controllable by the classroom teacher.

It has been established that Second and Third Year classrooms are those most likely to be disrupted by deviant student behaviour. It follows that most punishment is likely to take place in Second and Third Year classrooms. The research conducted by the Committee indicates that, within the Second and Third Year classrooms, the greatest proportion of students being punished are in Basic level. Table 7.2, *Relationship between Frequency of Visits to Deputy Principal or Principal Mistress for Punishment and Achievement Level of Student,* verifies this statement.

TABLE 7.2

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO DEPUTY PRINCIPAL OR PRINCIPAL MISTRESS FOR PUNISHMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENT

	Frequency of visits to deputy					
	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five
Students Advanced in all four core subjects	%	%	%	%	%	%
(N = 491)	88	6	....	1	....	....
Students Basic in all four core subjects (N = 216)	58	11	6	6	4	3

The Committee does not allege that the punishment of Basic level students is related simply to the students' relatively poor academic potential. The causal explanation is most intricate and almost certainly involves factors that begin with the child before he starts his formal school education. Nevertheless, it was apparent from Teacher Questionnaire responses that it was the view of teachers that the real discipline problems in school lay with the Basic level classes. While this assessment *may* be correct, the generality and frequency with which it is made may virtually ensure the continuance of disruptive behaviour in Basic level classrooms even when potentially successful measures are introduced to eliminate this behaviour.

This phenomenon would seem to be a case of the self-fulfilling prophecy which Merton (1948) succinctly summarizes: "If men define situations as real they are real in their consequences". If teachers and students expect Basic level students to misbehave, then these expectations serve as a catalyst for the deviant behaviour.

If this assertion is correct, then merely labelling a student Basic is going to increase the possibility that the student will be punished irrespective of the student's initial attitude to school and compliance with teacher authority. Hence the Committee applauds innovations currently being tried in Western Australian high schools in which classes are grouped on a basis other than ability. Basic and Advanced level students are able to intermix so that the effect of any stigma attached to the appellation "Basic" is likely to be diminished. These developments are described in detail in Chapter 9. However, in those instances where Basic level students are grouped together for large segments of the day, schools may be creating a problem for themselves. The school will not gain the respect of Basic level students while it tacitly expects them to misbehave and reserves its coercive power to deal with the fruits of its expectation.

Home background. Those students currently receiving the more severe forms of punishment at school tend to come from homes less oriented towards supporting the education process. The homes have fewer educational facilities, provide fewer encouragements and set lower educational goals. Table 7.3 *Relationship between Frequency of Visits to the Deputy Principal or Principal Mistress and Parental Interest in Homework,* illustrates the tendency of parents of students causing trouble at school to show less interest in the student's work at school.

TABLE 7.3

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL OR PRINCIPAL MISTRESS AND PARENTAL INTEREST IN HOMEWORK

Does anyone at home usually tell you to do your homework or ask whether you have done it?	Visits to deputy					
	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five+
N =	4,065	438	200	115	53	101
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Yes, almost every day	48	42	47	46	32	32
Yes, almost once or twice a week....	9	12	13	9	11	10
Yes, a few times a month	1	1	1	1	1	2
Yes, now and again	30	31	28	27	39	31
No, never	9	11	8	14	15	23

Not surprisingly, under these conditions 42 per cent of those students sent more than five times to the deputy for punishment spent less than half an hour a day on homework, and only 11 per cent of students who had never been sent were in this category.

The interests and out-of-school activities of the students being punished frequently tend to be centred outside the school. School is a place that the student is obliged to attend. Table 7.4 supports this assertion.

TABLE 7.4

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELECTED OUT OF SCHOOL ACTIVITIES AND INTERESTS AND FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL OR PRINCIPAL MISTRESS

Activity	Visits to deputy					
	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five+
N =	4,065	438	200	115	53	101
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Spend more than four hours a day watching television	12	19	19	21	28	28
Have a dictionary in the home	94	91	94	88	92	88
Spend more than two hours over the week-end listening to the radio	32	34	40	41	39	51
Read more than two comics a week	12	19	22	24	22	29
Never go to church	49	61	66	58	71	65
Smoke regularly	6	13	25	40	37	51
Close friends own a car	38	44	50	63	45	64
Spend less than three evenings a week at home	2	5	9	14	19	18
Prefer being with friends away from school	13	19	23	19	16	24
Go around with a group that thinks it important to be [illegible]d at school	19	16	13	7	7	8

Employment aspirations. With interests so obviously focused outside of school, the frequently punished group is keenly disposed to leave the environment that punishes for one, they hope, that rewards. The prospect of future reward through the acquisition of qualifications that sections of society so highly regard is either incomprehensible or not sufficiently tantalizing. Forty-seven per cent of the most frequently punished group would not finish Fifth Year high school if it were completely up to them, while only 16 per cent of those who have never received corporal punishment during 1972 would leave before Fifth Year. The sorts of occupations that this group of students feel that they will fill in later life have less social status and on the whole will provide less financial remuneration. They are less likely to include professional and semi-professional occupations. Table 7.5, *Relationship between Job Aspiration and Frequency of Corporal Punishment* bears this point out.

TABLE 7.5

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB ASPIRATION AND FREQUENCY OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

	Frequency of punishment				
Job aspiration	Very often	Quite often	Some-times	Hardly ever	Never
N =	134	118	303	558	3,916
	%	%	%	%	%
Doctor, professor, lawyer, architect, etc.	19	16	20	27	30
Business owner, farmer, contractor	16	15	13	10	7
Teacher, lecturer, social worker, etc.	8	12	12	14	29
Insurance salesman, real estate salesman, clerk	9	7	7	10	10
Electrician, hairdresser, mechanic, baker, etc.	25	33	30	24	16
Truck driver, labourer, etc.	15	13	9	8	3

In summary, students more frequently punished at school are less likely to aspire to professional employment.

Attitude towards school. Two further characteristics of the profile of the frequently punished student relate to the student's negative attitude towards school (and teachers) and his relatively poor school achievement. The fact that this group of students tends not to like school may come as no surprise to teachers, parents and students. Thus, the evidence contained in Table 7.6, *Relationship between Frequency of Visits to the Deputy for Punishment and Attitude to School Work,* is according to expectation.

The frequently punished group held a more general dislike for school and most matters formally associated with the institution. More than half of the students (52 per cent) sent to the deputy principal or principal mistress for punishment more than five times during first term were definite in their opinion that they disliked school as a whole. In contrast to the unpunished body of students, they felt antagonistic towards teachers in general, not only the teacher with whom they most frequently got into trouble. There was a tendency for the frequently punished group of students to view teachers as strict, humourless, suspicious and uninterested. The chagrin of these students seems to have been heightened by their belief that in many cases their punishment had been unfairly inflicted. Forty-six per cent of students frequently punished indicated their strong agreement with the statement that students in their school are sometimes punished without knowing the reason for it, compared with 13 per cent of the group which had never been punished. Of the frequently punished group, regarding the last time they were punished, 46 per cent believed themselves to be not guilty of the offence ascribed to them and 55 per cent contended that the punishment they were given was unfair under the circumstances.

TABLE 7.6

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO THE DEPUTY FOR PUNISHMENT AND ATTITUDE TO SCHOOL WORK

Attitude towards school work	Frequency of visits to deputy					
	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five+
N =	4,065	438	200	115	53	101
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Interesting	47	41	30	20	28	23
Neither interesting nor uninteresting	41	41	46	43	47	38
Boring	9	14	21	34	24	34

THE ADMINISTRATION OF PUNISHMENT

The frequency of punishment

The Committee views the frequency with which lower school students report being punished with concern. Nearly two-thirds of all Second and Third Year students had received some form of punishment during the first term of 1972 and a fifth of all students within the last week. Perhaps of more significance is the fact that 46 per cent of the group of students punished during the first term reported that the most recent application of punishment had been the use of the cane. Some teachers of lower school students obviously place great reliance on the use of the cane in the process of gaining classroom control.

The circumstances surrounding the use of corporal punishment are also viewed with concern. It is difficult not to conclude that there are occasions on which the cane is not used as a last resort but is somewhat arbitrarily administered to lower school students. Table 7.7, *Responses to Question: Have You Been Punished This Year for Doing Something That You Did Not Know Was Wrong?, by Year Level,* would suggest that a large proportion of students particularly from the lower school feel that they have been unreasonably dealt with.

TABLE 7.7

RESPONSE TO QUESTION : " HAVE YOU BEEN PUNISHED THIS YEAR FOR DOING SOMETHING THAT YOU DID NOT KNOW WAS WRONG? ", BY YEAR LEVEL

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	27	30	27	16	11
No	31	34	36	31	28
This does not apply to me	40	33	34	51	59

Similar proportions of students stated that they were not guilty of the offence for which they received their "most recent" punishment.

TABLE 7.8

RESPONSE TO QUESTION : " DO YOU THINK THAT YOU WERE GUILTY OR NOT GUILTY OF DOING WHAT THE TEACHER SAID YOU DID? " BY YEAR LEVEL

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
I was guilty	30	33	37	33	27
I was not guilty	25	33	28	18	16
This does not apply to me	43	32	33	47	55

Thus, the finding that 30 per cent of all students (half of those punished) believed that the punishment was unfair is viewed with some concern. While the Committee recognizes that these statistics are based on student perceptions only and may therefore present a one-sided picture of the events, nevertheless they are important because many students believe them to be true; this is how students regard the punishment system. It is difficult not to form the conclusion that numbers of students are being punished by various means, including corporal punishment. Many of these students believe that they have been unfairly dealt with and resent their treatment. This fact can hardly be conducive to the maintenance of good discipline and the administration of punishment under these circumstances must surely be a self-defeating process.

Punishment vs. a deterrent

The more we punish students the less they will like school. It also seems true of the traditionally more severe forms of punishment that the more we punish, the less a deterrent it becomes for most students. Table 7.9, *Relationship between Frequency and Perceived Dislike of Punishment,* reveals that for the group of students sent to the deputy principal or principal mistress five or more times, 38 per cent apparently do not view suspension as an effective deterrent compared with only nine per cent of the group who have never been sent to the deputy. Similar feelings are expressed about corporal punishment by these groups respectively. Generally speaking the students most frequently caned are less fearful of this form of punishment. While the students frequently caned may have had initially little fear of corporal punishment, a more likely explanation is that frequent exposure to corporal punishment has led to a diminution of its effect. First Year students were more fearful of corporal punishment than other year groups.

TABLE 7.9
FREQUENCY AND PERCEIVED DISLIKE OF PUNISHMENT

Punishment		Frequency of visits to deputy					
		None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five+
	N =	4,065	438	200	115	53	101
		%	%	%	%	%	%
1. Physical punishment (e.g. with cane, ruler or hand)	Hate it	41	33	39	41	30	37
	Dislike it considerably	23	22	16	15	5	9
	Dislike it a little	17	19	14	15	11	10
	It does not worry me	16	22	30	26	52	41
2. Detention (e.g. kept in after school, during recess, during sports period, etc.)	Hate it	39	50	54	71	62	69
	Dislike it considerably	26	21	17	10	18	11
	Dislike it a little	20	15	12	8	5	6
	It does not worry me	13	12	15	9	13	10
3. Suspended from school	Hate it	62	52	53	40	49	39
	Dislike it considerably	18	21	17	19	15	10
	Dislike it a little	6	7	7	12	9	9
	It does not worry me	9	15	20	28	26	38
4. Lecture from the teacher in front of the class	Hate it	38	33	32	26	35	42
	Dislike it considerably	23	18	15	15	16	8
	Dislike it a little	17	18	18	16	15	7
	It does not worry me	19	29	33	40	32	30
5. Sent out of the classroom	Hate it	11	10	7	5	9	11
	Dislike it considerably	17	10	12	6	9	5
	Dislike it a little	30	28	15	19	11	12
	It does not worry me	39	49	63	69	71	66

TABLE 7.9—continued

Punishment		Frequency of visits to deputy					
		None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five
	N Q	4,065	438	200	115	53	101
6. Note from the teacher or principal to your parents	Hate it	51	51	50	49	52	48
	Dislike it considerably	25	25	22	20	16	10
	Dislike it a little	13	12	11	13	13	14
	It does not worry me	8	10	16	15	16	25
7. Extra school work (e.g. extra homework set during free periods, etc.)	Hate it	29	36	40	53	52	56
	Dislike it considerably	20	20	19	15	11	12
	Dislike it a little	22	19	16	14	11	9
	It does not worry me	25	23	24	15	24	19
8. Yard duty (e.g. cleaning up the school yard during recess, etc.)	Hate it	54	64	64	70	66	76
	Dislike it considerably	19	17	14	13	18	9
	Dislike it a little	14	10	10	10	7	5
	It does not worry me	10	7	10	5	7	8
9. Private talking to by the teacher, deputy principal or principal mistress	Hate it	21	21	22	26	21	32
	Dislike it considerably	24	21	26	13	16	16
	Dislike it a little	29	29	22	21	15	14
	It does not worry me	24	26	29	38	37	35
10. Made fun of by the teacher with a sarcastic remark	Hate it	59	55	54	51	54	47
	Dislike it considerably	14	13	14	10	7	8
	Dislikes it a little	8	6	7	8	9	8
	It does not worry me	16	23	22	29	24	33

Not all methods of punishment were viewed with corresponding equanimity by the frequently punished students. Somewhat surprisingly, larger proportions of these students expressed an extreme dislike of detention, extra schoolwork, yard duty and public censure or humiliation. The more deviant students feel a greater dislike of punishments that involve them in more school work or which threaten their status among their peers. If this finding is the case—and the evidence from interview and questionnaire analysis supports this contention—then it would seem that many teachers are under a misapprehension: suspension and caning are not as likely to deter deviant behaviour as is generally supposed. The fact that 46 per cent of all students report that the most recent form of punishment was caning (or sent to the principal mistress, if a girl respondent) while only nine per cent nominated the imposition of extra homework suggests that some teachers see in corporal punishment a payoff that may be much more elusive than they think.

The teacher reaction to certain forms of student behaviour that results in the student being sent from the classroom has often been motivated by an understanding that this act was a form of punishment. The evidence from the Student Questionnaire would suggest otherwise. While under certain circumstances expulsion from the room (the immediate removal of the student from the source of his gratification, *i.e.*, approval from his peers for his deviance) is a reasonable response, it is not one that is likely to cause particular concern to the misbehaving student.

Other consequences of punishment

While attention has been drawn to the ethics and purpose of punishing students, careful consideration must also be given to the consequences. It is almost self-evident that the group of students already antipathetic towards school will have their dislike even more firmly entrenched while they are the recipients of punishment. In some cases, schools are reserving punishment, particularly its more severe forms, for a minority of unwilling clients. The effect could be the eventual disqualification of some students from a reasonable chance of leaving school properly equipped to compete for their livelihoods in the wider society. Some people will argue that these students will get only what they deserve. The Committee maintains that while attendance is compulsory for these students then the school is responsible for their welfare. Should the school implicitly or explicitly discourage any student from fulfilling himself, then it is failing in its responsibility.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The views of students

Most Western Australian students, teachers and parents seem to accept the principle of corporal punishment. This finding is in keeping with other research concerning punishment. Gaskell (1960) surveyed the attitudes of Scottish students between the ages of 12 and 18. Children accepted discipline and punishment on the whole without resentment. Gaskell attributed this acceptance partly to the tradition in which they were brought up. "However," he writes, "the fundamental reason seemed to be that they had, however vaguely, an ideal of conduct to which they wished to conform, and they accepted, and sometimes appreciated, control and punishments from parents and teachers, because they recognized them, for the most part, as intended to help them." While this may be true of a majority of students, there is a segment of the student body which attributes a vindictive motive to punishment at school. However, students, in the majority, even though they may dislike the prospect of being caned, still accept that certain behaviours deserve corporal punishment. Consider Table 7.10, *Students' Perceptions of Appropriate Punishments According to Frequency with Which They Have Been Punished.*

Two important conclusions emerge—most students accept that extremely deviant behaviour such as vandalism warrants punishment of a severe nature; and the group of students most frequently punished is in general more opposed to traditionally severe punishments for serious deviant behaviour. For less serious norm-violating behaviour such as "often found laughing in class", the position is not so clear. Surprisingly, larger proportions of the frequently punished groups are in favour of punishing this relatively less serious behaviour by the more

TABLE 7.10

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE PUNISHMENTS ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THEY HAVE BEEN CORPORALLY PUNISHED

	Frequency with which student has been corporally punished				
	Very often	Quite often	Sometimes	Hardly ever	Never
N =	134	118	303	558	3,916
Vandalism	%	%	%	%	%
Appropriate punishment					
Do nothing	19	5	3	2	....
Given a " talking to "	17	10	12	9	9
Kept in, or given extra work to do	9	6	4	7	5
Caned (if a boy) or severely told off if a girl	19	36	29	35	32
Suspended	32	39	49	43	50
Often found laughing in class					
Appropriate punishment					
Do nothing	37	28	16	12	10
Given a " talking to "	26	41	49	46	50
Kept in or given extra work to do	17	19	23	31	32
Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl)	10	8	9	7	5
Suspended	5	....	....	....	....

severe forms of punishment, caning or suspension. It could be argued that either the response of these students has been based on their own experience or these students do not have a well-developed scale of judgment concerning the seriousness of deviant school behaviour or its consequences. It may be argued that there is a group of the most frequently punished students which believes that it is being seriously punished for relatively trivial misbehaviour (or the culmination of a number of trivial offences) and, more importantly, has come to expect this form of response from teachers.

The views of parents

Corporal punishment has traditionally had a place in Australian schools. Most Australian-born parents of the present generation of Western Australian high school students have graduated from schools where the cane has been a means of gaining classroom control and attempting to teach the virtues of obedience. Undoubtedly parents' own experiences colour their present attitudes towards corporal punishment. Parents who have emigrated to Australia from certain Northern European countries have different attitudes to corporal punishment. In Holland, Norway, Belgium, Denmark, and the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, corporal punishment is forbidden. Parents of students from these countries tend to be opposed to corporal punishment for boys or girls. Figure 7.1 illustrates this divergence of opinion.

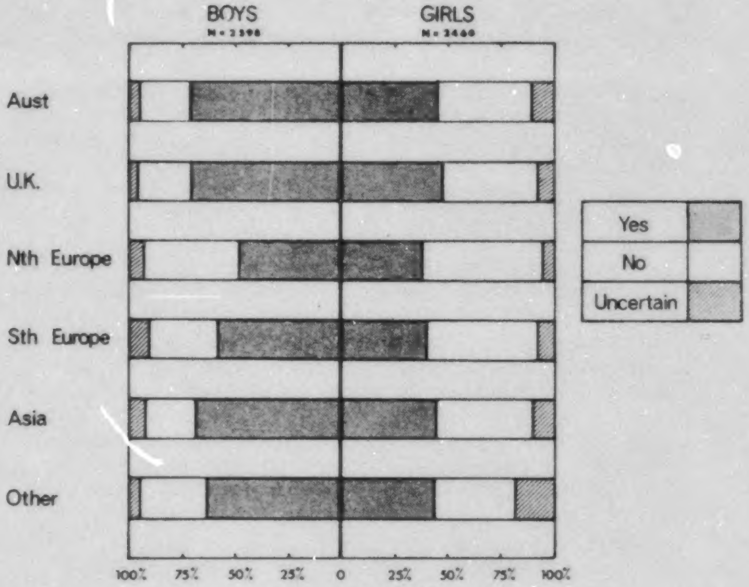


FIGURE 7.1. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' COUNTRY OF BIRTH AND AGREEMENT WITH CORPORAL PUNISHMENT FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

It can be noted from Figure 7.1 that parents who have emigrated from the United Kingdom, from where the roots of the Australian education system came, express a degree of support for corporal punishment similar to Australian-born parents.

Parental support of corporal punishment may well be an expression of the fear that the discipline in high school is currently too lax and ought to be tightened up if the school is to become a bulwark against the permissive society. Forty-four per cent of all parents who completed the questionnaire responded that they felt that discipline in high schools was currently too lenient. This belief may also explain the strong support (45 per cent overall) of parents for the caning of girls who have committed serious offences. Existing regulations forbid the use of corporal punishment for girls over twelve years of age.

The attitude of parents to questions of school discipline and punishment becomes even more apparent after considering the parents' written comments. A cross-section of parent opinion is described below: comments on school discipline came from parents in professional, business, clerical and unskilled occupations respectively.

> I think that in most cases punctuality is not enforced sufficiently, leading to indiscipline and misbehaviour.

> Discipline is sadly lacking during classes and also during recesses and also at the lunch break. There is a considerable amount of smoking going on in the boys' and girls' toilets during these breaks.
>
> Discipline should be strict but not blind. Students should know why discipline—when masses of bodies are grouped together—is essential. Caning or the use of the strap should be permitted to all teachers—not restricted to one Senior Teacher. More concentration on the basic principal of community living in the earlier year, the principle being don't do to others those things you wouldn't like done to you.
>
> High School discipline is conspicuous by its absences. There is a core of rebels that can be quoted in Primary school and will be identical in Senior High School. Too much notice is taken of this 5-10% minority who are allowed to distract the studying of genuine students A percentage of teachers and principals are not capable of carrying out the work of a teacher. To quote the word of one fifth form boy, if about ten of the boys (there are 100-120 in grade) were chucked out, school would be better and so would a lot of other things. They have no desire to learn or co-operate with the process of learning: one must learn first before one can start to disagree with the learning.

With regard to corporal punishment *per se,* the opinions of parents in professional, business, tradesmen and tertiary lecturer occupations are recorded below and represent a cross-section of written comment on this matter.

> Use of cane or other corporal punishment should only be administered with the authority of the headmaster.
>
> The use of canes, belts and the like should be abolished as this punishment should only be administered by the parents or legal guardian of that student. The teachers (on the whole) seem to regard education as a job and not as a means to an end, that is the ability to tackle life with confidence on behalf of the students.
>
> I feel that the cane is no real deterrent to boys because as a punishment it is over too quickly.
>
> There is to much disparity between the punishments of boys and of girls. Caning of boys for major breaches of discipline tends to act as a deterrent—there is no parallel punishment for girls—nor is the discipline of a headmistress (for girls) anything like as effective as that of the Deputy Principal (for boys).

The opinions of other groups

Not all teachers are in favour of the continuance of corporal punishment, as an extract from the submission of the Progressive Teachers Association illustrates:

> Corporal punishment should be abolished and alternative procedures implemented. Apart from its brutal and degrading character, its repeated use as a deterrent has proven itself ineffective in preventing misbehaviour on the part of students. All other physical assaults including the threat of assault should be avoided.

It would seem, however, judging from the written comments of teachers, that this view is far from universal. Many teachers expressed confidence in corporal punishment as a deterrent to deviant behaviour.

This widespread expression of support for corporal punishment among the Western Australian teachers is in keeping with the opinion of their Great Britain counterparts. The Plowden Report (1967) reports an overwhelming majority (between 80 per cent and 90 per cent) of the teaching profession opposed to the abolition of corporal punishment, noting, however, that few supported it except as a final sanction. No principal or deputy principal expressed any strong disapproval of corporal punishment for boys, though this group of respondents was generally opposed to the use of the cane on the hand for girls, expressing the view that such action would have an adverse effect upon school morale and would be considered repugnant by both staff and students.

The only submission [illegible] come from students was strongly opposed to the use of corporal punishment in school. In its submission, the Secondary Students' Union of Western Australia wrote:

> We are therefore opposed to all forms of punishment especially those taken by individual teachers or senior masters. Many problems in the classroom are created by psychological problems in the student, aggravated by home conditions and repression at school.
>
> Punishment is important in regimentation, but it is always liable to create a reaction or an over-reaction of the student and a wrong attitude to learning.

This submission would seem to be somewhat representative of student opinion, judging from the students' comments in their questionnaires. Of course, consideration of only those questionnaires which provided written comment may provide a distorted picture of student opinion regarding punishment. Students who approve or acquiesce with the existing punishment methods are less likely to voluntarily provide a comment supporting the *status quo*. Bearing this factor in mind, the feeling that was gained from reading these questionnaires was that many students did not believe that the abolition of corporal punishment was likely, though were it abolished this action would meet with their approval.

Exemptions from corporal punishment. Since a minority of parents are opposed in principle to the use of corporal punishment, one alternative might be to exempt the children of these parents from caning, providing the parents were able to give an assurance that their child would maintain a reasonable standard of behaviour at school. This course of action, which has a precedent in New South Wales, would remove for the exempted students the threat of corporal punishment. Such a course of action should, to a large extent, satisfy the 19 per cent of parents who are opposed to their child receiving corporal punishment. However, in the existing climate within schools, there is the danger that this form of parental protection might expose the child to unnecessary pressures from peer groups opposed to the preferential treatment. Nevertheless, exemptions might be one means of reducing the extent of corporal punishment and diminish the over-reliance which teachers place on it as a means of maintaining order.

Detention as an alternative. The Committee recognizes that some negative sanctions may be required to be exercised to maintain the good order of the school. Detention is one form of punishment which is approved within the Regulations though, according to the evidence contained in Table 7.1, is infrequently invoked. This is largely because detention usually involves teachers acting in a supervisory capacity. Teachers must, in effect, detain themselves. Further, for some country and metropolitan high schools, detention after school hours is made virtually impossible owing to school bus arrangements. The Committee believes that detention has a substantial deterring effect (see the evidence in Table 7.9) and could be used more often in lieu of corporal punishment if it could be applied during the school day. Accordingly, the Committee recommends that portion of the school lunch hour be set aside in which students may legitimately be detained. To effect this recommendation, existing regulations will require modification.

EFFECTIVENESS OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

The ease of administration

Much of the attractiveness of the use of corporal punishment in schools lies in the ease with which discipline problems may be apparently solved. The student displays some aspect of deviant behaviour. With little effort the student may be apprehended, caned and the teacher satisfied that the student has got what he deserves and been dissuaded from repeating the deviant act. To use some alternative form of punishment, such as detention or yard duty, requires a greater investment of the teacher's time and energy. Furthermore, apart from suspension from school, the cane has become the ultimate punishment for boys. If the student, when apprehended by the teacher or deputy principal remains unyielding and refuses to comply with direction, the cane has been a convenient means of ending the *détente*. The question remains, what has it achieved? The answer to this question must be framed in the light of the objectives motivating the administration of the punishment.

The views of students

The written opinions of two Second Year basic boys underline the relative ineffectiveness of the cane in terms of its deterrent and reformative capacity. The comments also illustrate the force of the normative sanctions that the school has at its disposal.

> When I was caned I got two for wagging it that was in grade seven. Suppose it stung a little bit but it hasn't affect my attitude towards school. At high school I would rather be caned than stay in after school or do a weeks scab duty because if you stay in after school you miss the bus and have to walk to midland and wait for about half an hour before a bus comes. Also the teachers who keep you in make you write essays on stupid subjects that don't affect you. I hate doing scab duty at lunch

> time because you have to do it in front of all your friends which makes you feel about two feet tall. I don't mind the papers but when you have to pick up squashed apples, bananas, soggy bread and moldy orange peels it does make your lunch taste very good and by the time you finish scab duty you have only got five minutes before the bell goes.

For this student the humiliation of having to pick up scraps in front of his peers was more painful than the sting of the cane.

> Caning does not hurt at all. It is only when you have a soft hand that is when you cannot take it. Mr Black looks like if he knows how to use a cane but he does not, it looks like if he is going to hurt you, but when he gives you the cane it only tingle a little bit on your hand.
>
> Then you fool him and shack your hand to say in one way that it hurt.
>
> Then he sends you of back to the classroom, to be a good little boy in class, you stay good for half an hour, and then you play up again.

For the second student the cane has no reformative function at all. Indeed this student's description is an obvious illustrative of how punishment can, in fact, encourage rather than discourage deceit. The wrong response is being reinforced.

The third set of comments, from a Third Year boy in an Advanced level, provides a perceptive student view on the real effects of corporal punishment. For this boy the outcome of caning is a build-up of student resentment, a viewpoint shared by the Committee.

> I think it is a waste of time and trouble on the teachers behalf. For a start is doesn't hurt and it is not done frequently enough. The student builds up resentment towards his teacher and tries to outsmart him and do terrible work. He hopes he is caned more often so that he has more reason to hate the teacher and an excuse to do badly in his work. The teacher's have their own method and apparatus for caning and some are by far more effective than others. Caning hurts more if it is done publicly i.e. in front of a class. I personally have only been caned once and it didn't hurt physically a bit, but mentally it did because I was caned for arriving late to a class but I was held up at a student council meeting, I have built up a resentment towards my teacher and have still not gotten over it.

Other effects. Corporal punishment may have both deterring and retributive functions when used at school. A student is meant to learn from his caning that his deviant behaviour should in future be suppressed. Obviously, owing to the number of students who are re-punished, this learning is not always accomplished. For many students the cane is not a successful deterrent and the more frequent the caning the greater the diminution of its deterring effect.

When asked why they thought teachers punished students, a larger proportion of those students caned frequently responded that its purpose was a warning to other students. Table 7.11, *Relationship between Frequency of Corporal Punishment and Perceived Purpose of Punishment*, illustrates this trend.

TABLE 7.11
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREQUENCY OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT AND PERCEIVED PURPOSE OF PUNISHMENT

Perceived reason for punishment		Frequency of corporal punishment				
		Very often	Quite often	Sometimes	Hardly ever	Never
	N =	134	118	303	558	3,916
		%	%	%	%	%
As a warning to other students		35	33	30	23	21
To make the student a better person		18	26	22	24	23
Because it is no good having rules if you do not have punishment		16	13	23	20	19
To keep law and order		3	11	7	12	14
Because teachers like punishing students		11	1	2	3	1
To teach students right from wrong		8	10	8	12	18
Because it makes teachers feel important		4	4	3	2	2

The question as to whether corporal punishment can serve some moral purpose has already been raised. Some 30 per cent of students saw the purpose of punishment to be to "teach students right from wrong" or "to make the student a better person" though smaller proportions of those *actually* punished held this view.

There was a tendency for the older students to be more sceptical of the reformative value of punishment. Table 7.12, *Relationship between Year Level of Student and Effect of Punishment,* demonstrates this difference in opinion.

TABLE 7.12
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN YEAR LEVEL OF STUDENT AND EFFECT OF PUNISHMENT

Effect of punishment		Year level				
		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
	N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
		%	%	%	%	%
Helped make a better person		24	20	17	12	8
Did not help make a better person		30	43	45	38	34
Have not been punished this year		44	34	35	47	56

By Fifth Year high school, less than a quarter of the students punished during the first term of 1972 were prepared to acknowledge that the punishment had any positive effect upon them.

Moral development

The Hall-Dennis (1968) report discusses the role of punishment in moral development:

> Further, punishment is demoralizing because it negates moral responsibility. It fosters cynicism and a belief that the thing to do is simply to avoid being caught by those who have authority to punish. It also causes those who are caught to think that they have paid their debt to society by virtue of the punishment received—an attitude indicative of amorality and irresponsibility.

It would be unrealistic to think that on most occasions at school when pupils are punished the teacher has the moral development of the student at heart, or that the student internalizes some moral value as a result of his punishment. Thus, a proper function of punishment advocated by Wilson (1971) and cited earlier in this Report may be to assist in the elementary stages of moral development of children, but for adolescents involved in the day-to-day tumult of classroom activity any arbitrariness in allocation of punishment in order to obtain control is likely to retard rather than nurture the development of moral responsibility.

The other participants

Teachers. The caning of a student does not take place in a social vacuum. In some respects the administration of corporal punishment affects the whole school. Teachers who do not resort to corporal punishment may be considered "soft" by students from a school environment where minor deviations are punished by the cane. In fact, students may *expect* teachers to retaliate by using the cane for even less serious offences. Furthermore, teachers who infrequently or never punish students with the cane may still be held responsible since they are part of the organization which determines the system of rewards and punishments.

Other students. The effect of the caning on students generally is not easily calculable but must serve to make the general climate of the school repressive. For many children, punishment of this type is virtually an alien experience, and to be even peripherally involved as a witness to it is unpleasant and potentially damaging. Bandura and Walters (1963) report research findings to the effect that parents who use aggressive control methods such as corporal punishment produce children who behave aggressively towards their peers. It would seem that punishment of this type is likely to lead to socially aggressive responses on the part of many students, particularly those who, rightly or wrongly, feel that their punishment is unfair and excessive. At the same time it may increase tensions among students who are not directly involved or responsible for the deviant act.

Socio-economic background and corporal punishment. One argument for the retention of corporal punishment has been that students who come from homes

TABLE 7.13
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND ATTITUDE OF STUDENTS TOWARDS CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Attitude of student to caning	Father's occupational type					
	Doctor	Contractor	Teacher	Clerk	Mechanic	Labourer
N =	438	1,111	374	586	722	1,076
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Hate it	39	39	35	37	38	40
Dislike it considerably	23	23	29	24	22	22
Dislike it a little	15	16	17	15	18	17
It does not worry me	19	19	16	21	20	19

of lower socio-economic status expect corporal punishment and hold in low esteem teachers who are reluctant to use it. In an interdisciplinary study carried out by the National Education Association (1959), it was stated (p. 68):

> Norm violating behaviour by lower class pupils which serves to "test" the firmness of school authority may represent an expression of the need for "being controlled", which is often equated with "being cared for" by superordinate authority. If kicking up, talking back, truanting, or running from an institution are dealt with severely, firmly and quickly, the pupil is reassured, although he may complain bitterly about his "unfair" and "tough" punishment or the "bad luck of being caught" . . . restrictive social environments such as the school, after being tested by the norm violating youngsters, may be rejected for failing to be strict enough rather than for being too strict.

While this may be true of students from certain families, the attitude does not seem to be explained by occupational status factors. On the whole, students from lower occupational status families dislike punishments just as much as students

TABLE 7.14
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND ATTITUDE OF PARENT TOWARDS CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Favour caning boys for serious offence	Occupational type					
	Doctor	Contractor	Teacher	Clerk	Mechanic	Labourer
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	65	66	64	70	69	70
No	29	28	24	25	26	23
Uncertain	5	4	9	3	4	6

N = 1,512

from other families. Furthermore, parents with different occupational statuses seem to hold similar overall views towards corporal punishment. Table 7.13, *Relationship between Father's Occupation and Attitude of Students towards Corporal Punishment,* and Table 7.14, *Relationship between Father's Occupation and Attitude of Parent towards Corporal Punishment,* fail to demonstrate any strong relationship between attitude towards punishment and social class where father's occupation is used as an indicator for social class.

Other indicators of socio-economic status, such as students' perceived family income, and the presence of a telephone in the home or a set of encyclopaedias provide further supportive evidence when correlated with student attitude towards corporal punishment—students from different strata are consistent in their dislike of corporal punishment.

TABLE 7.15

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE PUNISHMENTS

	Occupational type					
	Doctor	Contractor	Teacher	Clerk	Mechanic	Labourer
N =	438	1,111	374	586	722	1,076
Swearing and then refusing to do what a teacher says	%	%	%	%	%	%
Appropriate punishment						
Do nothing	2	3	4	3	3	3
Given a talking to	14	12	16	12	11	11
Kept in or given extra work to do	12	12	12	13	14	11
Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl)	43	44	37	46	43	46
Suspended	26	25	26	23	26	25
Never coming prepared for lessons						
Do nothing	6	6	6	5	3	5
Given a talking to	39	32	39	36	32	31
Kept in, or given extra work to do	44	47	42	45	50	48
Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl)	5	9	5	9	9	10
Suspended	3	2	3	3	3	2

Table 7.14 shows a slight trend towards a stronger approval of corporal punishment among parents engaged in clerical, trade and unskilled occupations. Of course, parents are not the recipients of the punishment and their perceptions may be coloured by their own school experiences. Their opinions are not necessarily approved by their children.

The argument may still be put forward that, even though students from lower social class backgrounds may dislike corporal punishment with a similar intensity to students from other backgrounds, they are more likely to expect severe retributive punishment than other students. The evidence from the Student Questionnaire does not support this point of view. Table 7.15, *Relationship between Father's Occupation and Students' Perceptions of Appropriate Punishments,* indicates little difference in the perceived appropriateness of punishments among groups of students whose fathers are employed in occupations with different earning capacities.

For the more trivial behaviour, there is a very marginal tendency for the doctor-teacher groups to be less inclined towards advocating corporal punishment. For the more serious deviant behaviour, students from the teacher-lecturer-social worker group were distinguished by their reluctance to prescribe corporal punishment as an appropriate punishment. Taken as a whole, the data provide little support for broad statements to the effect that students from lower socio-economic backgrounds expect and "need" corporal punishment.

Who administers the corporal punishment?

Delegation of authority to punish corporally. Classroom teachers are forbidden by regulation to cane students. The deputy principal has been given the role of administering corporal punishment, though in certain circumstances this power may be delegated to other senior teachers. The effect of this regulation is to control the frequency with which corporal punishment is meted out to students and to leave the decision regarding the severity of the punishment to a senior administrator in the school. The decision whether or not to cane the student is then made under calm and reassessed conditions. Were teachers given the power to administer corporal punishment, then some may be prone to administer the cane without sufficient forethought. Such a reaction obviously could lead to unpleasant consequence.

The role of the deputy principal. Having the deputy principal administer the punishment has disadvantages. It is most unpleasant for this person to administer the cane, deliberately trying to inflict pain upon individuals who may not have demonstrated any non-compliance or harm towards him or his office. Notwithstanding the detachment which the deputy must try to assume, he may often find himself in the invidious position of trying to adjudicate decisions between the student and the teacher. In doubtful situations, the principal must risk alienating either the teacher or the student in either caning or merely reprimanding

DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

the student. The deputy has a role to bolster the authority of the classroom teacher, and any apparent display of uncertainty or disinterest in administering the punishment that the teacher expects will be effected must reduce the authority of the teacher. The Committee recognizes that certain teachers have special problems in controlling groups of students. While these few teachers might expect support from school authorities in fulfilling their roles as teachers, it is unfair to expect the deputy principal to act as a punishment agent to make up for their deficiencies. Other means of support ought to be made available to these teachers.

The other major disadvantage of having the deputy principal responsible for corporal punishment is that it largely ensures that the corporal punishment will not occur until some time after the misbehaviour. This factor, coupled with the usual circumstances where the deputy principal has not been able to establish any rapport with the student, is likely to reduce the effectiveness of the punishment. Aronfreed and Reber (1965), for example, found that with students of primary school age, the immediacy of punishment critically determined the amount of behaviour suppression achieved. It would seem, ignoring the philosophical arguments for or against corporal punishment, that the current system of caning students is not operating at its maximum efficiency.

Further delegation of authority. In most circumstances the Committee discourages the delegation of authority to administer corporal punishment beyond the status position of deputy principal. A more widespread provision of authority reduces the control that the principal must have over its application. In some high schools, senior masters have been given authority to cane students. While this delegation of responsibility may ease the pressures in the duties of a deputy principal, the net effect of this action is likely to lead to an increase in the incidence of caning and to further the opportunity of mismanaging this form of punishment. This extension of authority is likely to prolong the dependence on corporal punishment in high schools. To go further and provide teachers with the authority to wield the cane would be contrary to the findings of the Committee. In the Committee's judgment such an action is unlikely to be the control panacea that some teachers believe it would be.

SUSPENSION

The purpose of suspension

Some issues relating to the question of suspension have already been discussed in a legal context. It would be profitable to consider some further implications of suspending students from school.

Suspension serves three purposes. First, it provides schools with a period during which the student's deviant behaviour may be reviewed, parents contacted and some contract from the student to modify his future behaviour effected. Secondly, it provides a means by which a disrupting influence may be removed from the school. The presence of the student at school may be considered to be impeding the learning of the students' classmates. Thirdly, suspension may be viewed as a punishment and therefore either a deterrent or a retribution for some deviant behaviour. In terms of existing regulations, only the first function is valid. It would appear, however, that in many instances suspension is used as a deterrent and punishment.

The effect of suspension. Examination of the incidents leading to suspension outlined in Chapter 8 suggests that the real motives for suspension in examples one, two, four and five were not to provide a "cooling off" period, but were either to remove the student from the school premises so that he or she could no longer influence other students, or to punish the student. If the suspension is being used as a punishment for the purpose of deterring extremely deviant behaviour, then it should be realized that it is relatively ineffective. The students most likely to incur this punishment are the students who dislike it least. For these students, suspension may even, inadvertently, become a reward. Gratification may come from being singled out for the apparently ultimate form of punishment. The students' peer group may elevate him into a hero who easily manages to accommodate the worst that the school can do. Table 7.9, *Frequency and Perceived Dislike and Punishment,* indicates that only 39 per cent of the frequently punished group claimed to "hate" suspension compared with 62 per cent of the group that had not been punished in 1972. Furthermore, suspension was viewed with less displeasure than punishments such as detention or a note home from the school. Many teachers may have viewed these latter punishments to be relatively innocuous compared to suspension. It would appear then that where suspension is used as a punishment it is not fulfilling its carefully expressed function as per the Education Department Regulations nor is it an effective deterrent. The major advantage would seem to be in its effect of isolating the deviant student from the teaching body rather than the student body. Its greatest effect, therefore, is likely to be an increase in teacher rather than student morale.

CONCLUSION

Corporal punishment

There is a growing trend among educators throughout the world to look askance at many of the punishments that are meted out in schools. Often the punishments are inffective, and prone to produce deleterious side effects. In many cases corporal punishment fits this category.

In principle, the Committee does not approve of corporal punishment. It is not necessary to inflict physical pain on students while they attend school. There does not appear to be any positive advantage that comes from caning a student rather than applying some other form of negative sanction. The Committee realizes that the rapport between teacher and pupil that is necessary for the development of a climate where learning may take place for its own sake will not flourish where control is maintained by the cane.

Some school systems have abolished its use for any purpose in school. It is not the deterrent that many persons have thought that it was. Furthermore, corporal punishment in most cases will only heighten a student's dislike of school and thus reinforce the behaviour that it was meant to eliminate.

School administrators are expected to administer punishments in a way that nearly all families and corrective institutions for adolescents would deplore. Most families govern the behaviour of their adolescent children without recourse to formal corporal punishment. The picture of a parent administering four strokes of the cane on the hand of an adolescent son for some misdemeanour would seem preposterous to most parents. Yet many of these same parents are prepared to encourage, or at least acquiesce in, the school pursuing a policy of formally inflicting corporal punishment. This attitude of some parents, of expecting the school to punish their child as they would not, seems unreasonable in the opinion of the Committee.

Realistically, however, the support for corporal punishment among parents and the reliance among teachers on the cane as a sanction against classroom disturbance precludes the immediate and outright banning of corporal punishment. To do so might precipitate unnecessary strain on teacher-student relationships. Rather it is hoped that every effort will be made to encourage teachers to consider alternative means of dealing with deviant behaviour. Caning should become, over a period of years, an obsolete and generally disapproved means of handling troublesome classroom situations.

The Committee believes that the abolition of corporal punishment should be accomplished with the full support of teachers and students. The phasing out of corporal punishment may best be accomplished by individual schools, acting on the recommendations of staff and students. These schools may already be operating under conditions conducive to abolishing corporal punishment. The first stage may not achieve the total abolition but rather the exemption of upper school students or other student groups from caning.

Other punishments

There are circumstances when punishment may be an appropriate teacher response to deviant student behaviour. Teacher disapproval may be registered in a variety of ways. Detention may be one legitimate form of punishment that teachers may more frequently enforce as a means of deterring deviant school behaviour. However, normative sanctions such as extreme sarcasm or ridicule should not be used to humiliate the student in front of his peers. This form of punishment is in effect disrespecting the student as a person and is more likely to heighten the antagonism between teacher and student.

The alternatives to punishment

Rewarding rather than punishing the behaviour of students may be a taxing and frustrating job for those teachers who traditionally have exercised a somewhat punitive role. Overnight these teachers cannot suddenly switch from one role to the other. Nevertheless it is possible through teacher training and other procedures to encourage teachers to place less reliance on punishment and more emphasis on rewarding positive behaviour whenever the opportunity arises.

Teachers should do all in their power to develop a sense of responsibility among students. Responsibility cannot be learnt in a climate of distrust where student behaviour is regulated by fear of punishment. Self-discipline is most likely to be acquired where students are given practice in making decisions about their school life, even if occasionally they are the wrong decisions. Recommendations regarding the development of responsibility in students are outlined in the section of the report dealing with student involvement in schools.

Recommendations

> The Education Department should plan for and provide the necessary guidance, welfare and other ancillary staff to make possible the phasing out of corporal punishment in Western Australian high schools in the shortest possible time.
>
> During the phasing out of corporal punishment schools should resort to that type of sanction only when other means have demonstrably failed to

remedy undesirable behaviour and principals should exercise caution in delegating to teachers other than deputy principals authority to administer corporal punishment.

No later than 1975 the Education Department should set up a committee to review progress made in abolishing corporal punishment and to examine the possibility of setting a definite date for its complete abolition.

The Education Department should extend the principle of phasing out corporal punishment to primary schools.

Regulation 29 should be amended to provide for students to be detained during the lunch recess with the proviso that the period of detention must not exceed one-half of that period.

CHAPTER 8

THE SEVERELY DEVIANT STUDENT

THE CASE STUDIES

Introduction

In order to provide a deeper insight into the characteristics, motives and backgrounds of students who are unable to, or choose not to, conform to accepted patterns of school conduct, a series of case studies of severely deviant students was initiated. While the questionnaires prepared for this study were considered adequate for retrieving the essential raw data necessary for the Committee's deliberations, it was felt that the observations that could be drawn from personal interviews between psychologists and students might provide a more finely etched profile of the severely deviant high school student.

A typology of deviant behaviour

Descriptions of students liking and disliking school are probably over simplifications. The attachment to school is more than likely situationally variant, depending on the time of day, their involvement with particular teachers, and numerous other circumstances which contribute to their impression of school. When students meet school situations that arouse strong negative feelings, they are faced with three behavioural options—compliance with the authority that maintains the situation; withdrawal from the realities of the situation or confrontation with the authority; and non-compliance and activism. Whether the student behaviour is premeditated or spontaneous, the school is obliged to react if it contravenes teachers' definitions of established behavioural norms.

There does not appear to exist a typology which permits a comprehensive categorization of deviant school behaviour. Many labels have been made to fit the student identified as a discipline problem—emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted, asocially or anti-socially alienated, mentally disordered, withdrawn, cerebrally dysfunctioning, and so on. One model which does permit a reasoned treatment of the question of deviant or maladaptive behaviour is that proposed by Ullman and Krasner (1965, p. 20):

> Maladaptive behaviours are learned behaviours, and the development and maintenance of a maladaptive behaviour is no different from the development and maintenance of any other behaviour. There is no discontinuity between desirable and undesirable modes of adjustment or between "healthy" and "sick" behaviour. The first major implication of this view is the question of how a behaviour is to be identified as desirable or undesirable, adaptive or maladaptive. The general answer we propose is that because there are no disease entities involved in the majority of subjects displaying maladaptive behaviour, the designation of a behaviour as pathological or not is dependent upon the individual's society. Specifically, while there are no single behaviours that would be said to be adaptive in all cultures, there are in all cultures definite expectations or roles for functioning adults in terms of familial and social responsibility. Along with role enactments, there are a full range of expected potential reinforcements. The person whose behaviour is maladaptive does not fully live up to the expectations for one in his role, does not respond to all the stimuli actually present, and does not obtain the typical or maximum forms of reinforcement available to one of his status. The difference between the types of reinforcement that maintain adaptive and maladaptive behaviour is that the latter is maintained by more immediate and direct forms of reinforcement than the former. Behaviour that one culture might consider maladaptive, be it that of the Shaman or the paranoid, is adaptive in another culture if the person so behaving is responding to all the cues present in the situation in a manner likely to lead to his obtaining reinforcement appropriate to his status in that society. Maladaptive behaviour is behaviour that is considered inappropriate by those key people in a person's life who control reinforcers. Such maladaptive behaviour leads to a reduction in the range or the value of positive reinforcement given to the person displaying it.

This view does not hold disruptive high school behaviour as an adolescent disease but rather as a problem which students, teachers, parents and the community in general have a responsibility to solve. While it may be convenient from time to time to refer to the maladaptive behaviour in terms of its supposed source (emotional, social and so on), a more useful approach, in keeping with Ullman and Krasner's explication, may be to discuss discipline problems in terms of the degree of deviance.

Selecting students for case studies

The criterion used to select students as subjects for an intensive case study was relatively simple—selection was based on the degree to which the student's behaviour interfered with the operation of the school and the learning of other students. This approach is consistent with the Ullman and Krasner psychological model of maladaptive behaviour—the supposed psychological, psychiatric or medical "causes" or bases of the behaviour were not considered since it was felt that any casual diagnosis could only be attempted after the case studies had been concluded, and then in very cautious and limited terms.

It was recognized that a distinction should be drawn between "normal" children who may sometimes engage in mischievous acts or make an occasional error in mastering developmental tasks. These children are, however, generally quite successful in their personal and social adjustments. It would be expected that such "normal" children would develop into useful and effective citizens with education provided to them by the school and the home, and would not require any special help by child or family agencies in the school and community. The extremely deviant child, however, is obviously atypical by virtue of the persistency or severity of his norm-violating behaviour.

The operational definition of extremely deviant behaviour for the purposes of this study is as follows:

> Seriously deviant behaviour is defined as behaviour by students which deviates from the specific norms of the school with sufficient frequency and/or seriousness such that its management requires the exercise of authority beyond that possessed by the classroom teacher.

A complete description of the sampling and selection procedures adopted for the case study investigation of discipline may be found in Chapter 4, where the research methodology is discussed in full. In brief, using the above definition as a guideline, guidance officers selected 73 students in both metropolitan and country high schools and completed semi-structured case studies designed to elicit a more complete picture of factors associated with school deviance.

Description of subjects

Sixty nine per cent of the students reported upon in the sample were boys and 31 per cent were girls. By far the greater number (87%) were in the 13 to 14-year-old age group and were located in the Second Year (67%) and Third Year (24%) of high school. An analysis of the academic potential of these students revealed that 66 per cent were under achieving and that 78 per cent were enrolled in courses which may be said to have a trade or commercial orientation. In essence, these data support evidence already presented in discussions of the nature and extent of indiscipline—namely that the majority of cases of indiscipline tend to be found among Second Year, Basic level students. Boys predominate as offenders. This is true of the more serious deviance as well as the more general and widespread problems.

Eighty per cent of the students reported upon were Australian born and 15 per cent were from the United Kingdom. Only a very small percentage (6%) had parents who could not speak English. These figures are very nearly identical to the proportion of students with similar characteristics in the student population as a whole. While ethnic and language factors may have played some part for individual students in the formulation of anti-school attitudes, overall they do not provide a consistent explanation for deviant behaviour.

The hypothesis that the students' maladaptive behaviour could be explained by factors associated with their physical appearance was not supported by the data.

Of the sample of extremely deviant students 18 per cent had some atypical physical characteristic such as short stature, overweight or physical deformity and only seven per cent appeared to be self-conscious in any way about their appearance. Even for this group, it would be a tenuous assertion to attribute the student's behaviour largely to this factor. While there is little doubt that the student's view of himself and self-consciousness in front of his peers could well be a cogent force behind his manifest anti-school behaviour, further probing by school guidance officers did not uncover that the subjects chosen for the case studies were troubled in this respect.

Not only were members of the extremely deviant group typical in terms of physical appearance—a matter over which they had limited control—but in matters of dress and grooming only a small percentage (15 per cent) were able to be differentiated in any way from the majority of students. Little evidence of extroverted or attention-seeking behaviour was therefore manifest in the subjects' physical appearance.

History of schooling

Changing schools not only disrupts the cognitive learning of students but also inhibits the social and other affective aspects of a student's education. Education in schools is not sufficiently individualized that a student may transfer from one school to another without some impediment to his formal learning. At the broadest level the courses offered the new student may be different. Even where the same subjects are available to him, his classmates may be ahead or behind him in their schoolwork, textbooks may be different, the teacher a different person with an unfamiliar approach, and his peers wary and perhaps even hostile. The unfamiliarity with this situation, at least for the first few weeks, disadvantages the student in his relations with the others in the school with whom he is obliged to interact. If things do not go his way, then it would be easy for the student to withdraw or react aggressively, in spite of a motivation to learn or do well. Of course, most students are able to adjust to these new situations and gradually be absorbed into the formal routine of the school and the informal culture that it nurtures. Some, however, find adjustment more difficult and, where the movement from school to school is more frequent, insecurity is heightened and the potential for displays of maladaptive behaviour maximized.

Bearing in mind the disadvantages outlined above, it was found that, from within the sample of 73 students, 43 per cent had attended four or more primary schools. Eighteen per cent of students had repeated a year of schooling at some time in their school career and 12 per cent were currently repeating a year. The repetition of a year of schooling was most likely owing to movement to Western Australia from overseas or another State. The experience of repeating a year, whether in the same school or in a new school environment, may not always have a detrimental effect on school behaviour; nevertheless, it represents for some students a new situation where new personal relationships must be established and status among friends determined.

Table 8.1 demonstrates a predictable relationship. A substantial number of students who have been resident in Australia for a short period of time have attended more than four primary schools.

TABLE 8.1
DISTRIBUTION OF DEVIANT STUDENTS ACCORDING TO TERM OF RESIDENCE IN AUSTRALIA AND NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS ATTENDED

Number of Primary schools attended	Term of residence in Australia 0–3 years	4–6 years	7–10 years	All life	Total
1–2	....	....	....	25	25
3–4	....	4	2	22	28
More than 4	2	3	2	13	20
Total	2	7	4	60	73

The disruptive effect that this movement must have on the cognitive and affective learnings of the child can be appreciated, and may well explain, at least partially, the students' unfavourable attitudes towards school and their deviant behaviour. Cultural differences must surely exacerbate the problems of the immigrant student.

While the mobility of immigrant deviant students was noted, the large proportion (22 per cent) of Australian-born deviant students who had attended more than four primary schools should be viewed with some concern and investigated further.

History of deviant behaviour

It should be noted that 43 per cent of the subjects included in the sample came to their present school with an unsatisfactory report of achievement in the primary school. Thirty-six per cent of the case study sample came to the high school from the primary school with a known reputation as a troublemaker. These percentages are revealing in as much as the sampled opinion of primary superintendents indicates that few, if any, serious problems of indiscipline were to be found in primary schools. Only 16 per cent of primary school superintendents responded that serious indiscipline problems were found in primary schools.

While the case study data do not shed light on the overall climate of discipline in the primary school, since the data are concerned only with extreme deviance, they do suggest that, in many cases, the symptoms of deviant high school behaviour are apparent before the student reaches this institution.

Consideration of Table 8.2 suggests the need for co-operation between personnel in the primary and secondary institutions. More than half the extremely deviant students with unsatisfactory primary school reports had not, by the end of first term 1972, been referred to a school guidance officer or some other professional psychologist.

TABLE 8.2

DISTRIBUTION OF DEVIANT STUDENTS WHO BEGAN HIGH SCHOOL WITH AN UNSATISFACTORY PRIMARY SCHOOL REPORT ACCORDING TO WHETHER THEY HAD EVER BEEN REFERRED TO A PSYCHOLOGIST OR A SCHOOL GUIDANCE OFFICER

	Had unsatisfactory report	Had satisfactory report	Unknown	Total
Referred to a guidance officer	14	11	6	31
Not referred to a guidance officer....	17	19	6	42
Total	31	30	12	73

Most case study students were in Basic level in their core subjects. Poor achievement is a factor associated with extreme deviance. It would seem that, in the best interests of the school, some screening procedure should be instigated during the period of articulation between primary and secondary school. Of course, it would be a mammoth task for the guidance officer to investigate the background of every under-achieving student, but where the student's report indicates evidence of maladaptive social behaviour, at least precautionary notice should be taken.

Table 8.3, *Relationship between Reputation as a Troublemaker and Referral to a School Guidance Officer*, indicates that, of the 29 deviant students who had established reputations for being extremely maladaptive in the primary school context, 14 had not been referred to the school guidance officer at the time the present case work began. In other words, no social or psychological intervention beyond the classroom teacher-deputy headmaster level was exercised for these students in order to modify their maladaptive behaviour.

TABLE 8.3

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REPUTATION AS A TROUBLEMAKER AND REFERRAL TO A SCHOOL GUIDANCE OFFICER

	Had a reputation	Did not have a reputation	Unknown	Total
Referred to a guidance officer	15	11	5	31
Not referred to a guidance officer	14	21	7	42
Total	29	32	12	73

Two major implications may be deduced from the evidence tabled above. The first is that many deviant students demonstrate maladaptive behaviour before they begin high school. Waiting until these students reach the larger, more impersonal climate of the high school before attempting a formal rehabilitative programme—by which time the students' behaviour and attitudes towards school are more deeply entrenched—is not in either the students' or the school's best interests. It is clear that the high school institution and its informal culture is not entirely responsible for developing patterns of maladaptive behaviour and the negative attitudes towards school that are associated with this behaviour.

With a view to identifying extremely deviant students early in their school life more frequent medical inspections of students might occur. Students with undiagnosed hearing, vision or speech impairments are undoubtedly disadvantaged and more likely to be forced to adopt a negative stance towards school. For example, some researchers have linked reading disability and underachievement with juvenile delinquency. Further, some behaviour problems may have their origin in nutritional or metabolic deficiencies or imbalances.

The second implication drawn from the evidence described above pertains to the role of secondary school guidance staff. In view of the large proportion of extremely deviant students who had not been referred to guidance officers or school counsellors prior to the Committee's enquiry, it would appear either that the guidance officer does not view dealing with manifestly deviant high school students to be part of his role, or he has too many other duties that restrict his dealings with this type of student, or that other school personnel such as the deputy principal or principal mistress feel capable of dealing with the maladaptive behaviour without referral to a guidance officer.

Guidance facilities in schools

Social and emotional guidance form an important dimension of the work of the Guidance and Special Education Branch. Through a network of eight metropolitan and three country school district guidance officers and 60 metropolitan and five country school guidance officers, assistance is provided to students with a mild degree of maladjustment. If, after interviewing and testing, the student is found to have a deeper-seated problem, he may be referred to another agency such as the Mental Health Services Child Guidance Clinic, through which psychiatric treatment is available.

Currently, the school guidance officers are stationed in secondary schools, though their sphere of influence extends to the contributory primary schools. These officers are expected to spend approximately two-fifths of their time involved in counselling primary school students.

The responsibilities of a guidance officer are much wider than dealing with maladaptive social and emotional behaviour. Guidance officers are expected to provide educational guidance on an individual and group basis in primary and secondary schools and to attend to vocational guidance matters of students at the

late primary and the secondary level. These functions require him to administer group and individual psychological tests and to interview students on a personal basis.

Because of these extensive duties, a guidance officer, at the present time, can only be peripherally involved in questions of school discipline. Obviously, relatively trivial and isolated infringements of school rules do not warrant his involvement. If, however, a student has exhibited serious instances of maladaptive behaviour, then the professional training of the guidance officer should be utilized. If remedial action (other than punishment) is needed, then the guidance officer is in a position to advise school administrators of outside services available.

The guidance officer has a unique position on the school staff. Usually he has no classroom commitment other than involvement with remedial education programmes. His role ought to allow him to develop a strong rapport with students and thereby allow him to make a more positive contribution to the maintenance of a more relaxed school climate.

The problem of control, which may often strain relationships between teacher and student, is non-existent for the guidance officer. Free from this constraint, he might be able to assess accurately the factors contributing to a confrontation between student and teacher. Coupled with this impartiality is his training in mental health. These attributes ought to allow him to play a positive role in mediating discipline disputes involving extremely maladaptive students.

The setting up of a special class for maladaptive students may be a means of coping with severe discipline problems. This practice is currently being effected for primary school students by the Guidance and Special Education Branch of the Education Department. A similar programme, based on behaviour modification and positive reinforcement, has been successfully implemented in the United States (Stravelli and Sykes, 1972), thereby providing an alternative to suspending disruptive students. Proponents of this scheme argue that suspension provides no behavioural substitute for the maladaptive behaviour, whereas a special guidance class provides a new situation where substitute behaviour can be learnt and the student is still in school. Developments such as this underline the need for guidance officers with substantial training in clinical psychology.

Withdrawing the extremely deviant student from the classroom at the onset of the maladaptive behaviour has certain advantages to recommend it. The effect of this action, if properly managed, is to remove the student from the source of his gratification, namely, the approval of his peers. From a teacher's point of view this action removes the tension and responsibility of coping with the student and allows him quickly to resume his normal teaching duties. Of course it is not sufficient merely to send a student outside the classroom and forget about him. Some other staff member must assume responsibility for the student. Guidance officers, form masters, year masters and tutors are some of the persons in the school who through their less formal contacts with students may meaningfully counsel them and alleviate the problem. Facilities must be provided in schools where these students and staff members may meet if the scheme is to be properly effected.

Some schools have reported success when dealing with troublesome students along the lines outlined above.

Recommendation

The Education Department should examine measures for remedying discipline problems by providing facilities within the school to which extremely deviant students may be withdrawn for special supervision and counselling.

Conclusion. An examination of the educational histories of students who exhibited extremely deviant behaviour in high school revealed that almost 50 per cent had a history of unsatisfactory performance in the primary school. Thirty-six per cent of these students came to secondary school with a known reputation as a troublemaker. What is of most concern with respect to these students, however, is that only 48 per cent were ever referred to a guidance officer for special testing or examination. In effect, it would appear that there is a need to apply remedial measures at a much earlier time than is usual at present, particularly when the behaviour is evident in the primary school. These remedial measures ought not be confined to students who overtly rebel. Withdrawal on the part of the student, while often less disruptive to others, may have just as severe consequences on his cognitive learning and social adjustment. It would appear that, by the time many students have reached high school, it is too late to apply remedial measures with any hope of success. These students by this time may have disaffected other students with their example.

Recommendation

The Education Department should take steps to ensure an extension of the work of guidance officers and an increased frequency of medical examinations. These could give particular emphasis to the identification and modification of specific learning difficulties and to extremely maladaptive behaviour among children in primary and secondary schools.

CASE STUDY DESCRIPTIONS

An appreciation of the nature of the extreme behaviour of certain students in high schools is unlikely to be gained from perusing tables of statistics. The descriptions that follow give some perspective to the sort of incident that provokes extreme sanctions from school authorities.

The accounts are drawn from two sources—the Education Department School Welfare Section and the case studies completed by guidance officers for the consideration of this Committee.

All of the names of persons involved in the incidents that follow are fictitious though the rest of the comment is a verbatim transcription of the written accounts compiled by school administrators and guidance officers.

Examples of deviant behaviour

The following examples of deviant behaviour have been selected from the case studies drawn up by guidance officers. They have been selected because they illustrate well the wide range of types of deviant behaviour with which teachers and administrators are confronted. In each of these cases the subjects have displayed a history of deviance and it should be re-emphasized that the behaviour of the subjects is quite atypical. Reactions on the part of teachers to behaviours such as those reported below consume an inordinate amount of their time and energy that would better be expended on the promotion of student learning.

Kerry

Consider the following extract from the case history of Kerry. This case study is somewhat atypical in that it focuses on a girl. Nevertheless, the description of her behaviour is similar to other reports of the aggressive anti social activities of a few 14 and 15-year-old female students in Western Australian high schools.

> Kerry was a persistent troublemaker at primary school—rude, insolent, aggressive. She was involved in fighting with other girls after school. She organized a gang to steal from houses in the area. Alcoholic drinks were stolen for their boy friends. Kerry was the leader of a high school gang while she was in Grade 7. Bottles of champagne were stored in school lockers. When interviewed by the police the subject said she didn't drink the champagne as she didn't like it. Kerry was caned several times by the primary school first mistress for defiance and wilful disobedience. At high school she was often sent to the first mistress for rude classroom behaviour, especially with two young male teachers. Younger female teachers report that the subject requires careful handling, for she becomes aggressive when the teacher becomes annoyed or makes strong demands. Her teachers believe that it is best if slight infringements are ignored. Kerry says she is a "bikey girl" and physically fights with other girls. She expresses strong dislike of school.

Alan

The case study of Alan provided one of the few descriptions of physical violence being used by a student against a teacher. Although one must be careful in ascribing explanations for the isolated classroom skirmishes of the type described below, a careful analysis of the full case study report cannot fail to impress the reader with the intensity with which the subject disliked schools and his ambition to "get out" as soon as he could.

> Alan has wanted to leave school since he was thirteen. He is passive and withdrawn, refusing all offers to take part. In the classroom he is actively disruptive, thereby preventing others from working. Typically, Alan is sent to the deputy head after confronting a teacher. Consider Alan's version of this incident. The science teacher, after a lot of minor incidents, "gave me a back hand across the head and threw me around the class by the hair. I pushed him back and grabbed him by the tie. Then a girl went to get the deputy." The deputy has removed Alan from the classroom situation and he is at present working by himself in the library all day.

Robert

The reversal in behaviour patterns after transition from primary school to secondary school is a feature of the third case study report. There is little explanation provided in the report on Robert for his deteriorating conduct at school. Certainly the case study reported in rather unclinical terms leaves no doubt that Robert had, by Second Year, become completely antipathetic towards school.

> Robert was not a problem at primary school, where he was regarded as a keen, industrious student, co-operative, well adjusted and socially mature. However, at high school he has failed to settle down. Reports from his teachers refer to his lack of self-control and erratic attitudes. He has become lazy and irresponsible, with results becoming progressively worse. He has been found to be dishonest and sneaky. Offences include stealing, interfering with lockers, aggressive,

> disruptive classroom behaviour, fighting and nuisance phone calls to a member of staff.

The subjects in the three case studies cited above were all low achievers and, in being so, are typical of most of the 73 students identified as extremely deviant by the school guidance officers who wrote the case studies.

Brian

The following case is not that of a low achiever. The subject's maladaptive behaviour is not confined to any particular teachers. His deliberate baiting of teachers, particularly in front of his responsive peer group, characterize his behaviour. When the means by which his ego is gratified is withdrawn and he is separated from his anti-school clique, his behaviour responds accordingly.

> Brian has enjoyed deliberately disrupting classes to antagonize teachers whenever he is able. He does this by—
>
> (1) Sitting quietly but refusing to do anything, then coming out with a "smart alec" retort when the teacher queries his attitude.
>
> (2) Passing other students "things" around the class until the student in exasperation disturbs the class and is usually reprimanded by the unobservant teacher. It reached the stage in Second Year that most students dreaded sitting next to him. The "no fighting" school rule and his group of "cronies" protected Brian from retribution.
>
> (3) Sometimes Brian and his group decide to give a weak teacher a "fair go". They find to their surprise that the teacher assumes that they have weakened and puts pressure upon them so that the truce does not last long.
>
> (4) He quickly recognized which teachers can be played upon and which to leave in peace. This year the challenge of remaining in Advanced levels is keeping him busy and separating him from his "cronies".

Descriptions involving suspension

The following accounts are drawn from the correspondence files of the Education Department School Welfare Section. These indicate the types of behaviour which precipitate suspension by principals. Three of the students in the first six incidents are female. All involve lower school students.

Example 1

I wish to report that I have suspended Tony Rinaldo.

This action was precipitated by his refusal to submit to corporal punishment for wilful and persistent disobedience. A group of boys had been repeatedly warned about their increasing rowdiness in moving from one class to another at change of periods. Two boys were seen chasing around a verandah post, and then out onto the playground. I regard this as a minor matter, but one deserving mild punishment in view of the repeated warnings. One boy submitted to the two strokes of the cane, but Tony refused to do so even after a long discussion, and later in the presence of his father, who tried to convince him of the need to take his punishment.

I suggested to Mr. Rinaldo that he take his son with him and talk to him during lunch-time about the necessity to accept the authority of the school. If he could persuade Tony to return and take his punishment, he could go back into the classroom without anything further being said. If he would not accept the two strokes of the cane punishment, then I would have no alternative but to suspend him for refusal to accept the authority vested in me by the Education Department. I stressed that the suspension was not for the relatively minor matter for which he was to be caned.

I wish to supply some further details of this boy's behaviour.

(1) A few weeks ago Tony Rinaldo and two other boys came to the school on a Sunday afternoon and together they participated in causing the following damage.
  (a) Slashed seven fly screens on the new laboratory.
  (b) Opened a fuse box, removed most of the fuses and scattered them.
  (c) Broke a rain gauge.
  (d) Broke a fly screen in the classroom and scattered books on the floor.
  (e) Wrote abusive comments in chalk on the outside brick-work of the school. Tony Rinaldo has admitted that he wrote, "Mrs Crown is a ——".
  (f) Firewood and bike racks were placed as barricades across driveways.
  (g) A tree was broken and plants were pulled from the garden.
  (h) The school bus sign was pulled out and placed in a tree.
  (i) The school letter-box was extensively damaged.

The above vandalism was reported to the Department in my letter of 24 June, and the boys are to appear in a local court on Wednesday, 23 July.

At the time, I discussed with an officer of the Welfare Branch what action would be appropriate. He suggested the possibility of suspension, but we decided that, as the police were taking action, this would not be necessary.

(2) Late last year Tony Rinaldo was one of several boys who brought beer and wine to school and drank it in the school playground during lunch-time. This incident was discussed fully with my superintendent at the time.

As the boy is fifteen in two weeks' time I recommend, for the good order and discipline of the school, that he be required to leave.

Example 2

Today I have suspended from school a Year 3 girl named Margaret Hensman.

Yesterday afternoon she drove off at lunch-time in a car with three youths. They went to the home of one of these youths. During the afternoon she admits having had intercourse with two of them.

I delivered her home to her mother this morning and told the mother to keep her at home until I notified her that the girl could return.

I shall contact the mother shortly and discuss with her the possibility of the girl doing private study at home till the end of third term. There are at least two girls in the school who positively know all the details of the episode, and no doubt many others already know, or soon will know, the details also. I think it would be better for the girl, the family and the school if she did not return. Her prospects of gaining a Certificate are dismal.

Example 3

I wish to report that I have suspended Marie Clark. This action was made necessary by the following behaviour.

Insolent to staff—dislikes being disciplined.
Abusive to fellow students.
Threatens to fight peers.
Refuses to wear hair tied back.

Some of the more "outstanding" incidents.

9 March	Put off school bound bus—insolent to driver.
23 March	Did not bring equipment to home science. When the teacher suggested that she might like to drink the soup that she had made Marie answered rudely, stormed out of class and went home. When pursued by a staff member she refused to return to school.
16 April	Fought another student on the homeward-bound bus. Parent of victim reported matter to police and school.
6 May	Scratched remarks onto toilet door—insulting another student. Later in day—slapped a girl on the face.
17 June	Accused another student of damaging her watch. Threatened to "belt her up" after school. After discussion out of class—Marie agreed that her accusation could not be justified. On re-entering room, one student passed a remark, and the teacher asked her where her books were. Result—hit the former on the face—sent out, slammed door on teacher's hand.
18 June	On way home from school, Marie threatened a Second Year student and used abusive language towards her.
19 June	During recess punched the same girl (18 June) on face, injuring her lip.
14 August	Used abusive language to staff members. Refused to do as she was told—struggled violently with two lady staff members—abused the deputy principal and stormed out of the school.

Example 4

I wish to inform you that last Friday at 2.30 p.m. Ian Patlov's behaviour was such that I told him to gather up his books and go home. Later his father visited me and his attitude and his criticisms of the teachers of this school were offensive and so I dismissed him and told him not to send his son back here. It was well after 4.00 p.m. before he left.

This was the culmination of misbehaviour over a long period, but more particularly it was due to the decided and continuous deterioration over the last three months.

I would report the following about his behaviour during the last fortnight:

(1) He has refused to apologize to two teachers for bad behaviour and has not attended their classes. This despite suggestions and advice by me.

(2) He has continually dodged periods of work and absented himself from the private study room.

(3) He has absented himself from school for 2½ days. He produced a note covering his absence, but only under pressure. The boy admitted in the presence of his mother that he wrote this note and she commented that it was a good counterfeit of her writing.

(4) On Thursday, 23 October 1969, Ian was seen in suspicious circumstances interfering with clothing in the boys' change room at 11.45 a.m. Money from eight sets of clothing to the value of about $8 was stolen about this time. He should have been elsewhere. My suspicions were such that I called in the police.

(5) He has lied continually to his teachers and to me.

(6) He has been a deliberately upsetting influence in his classes.

(7) On Friday morning, despite the trouble of the previous day, he absented himself from Science A and mathematics and arrived in the craft room at 9.15 a.m., where he stayed until 10.30 a.m. I caned him for this.

(8) On Friday afternoon, Period 6, when he should have been at mathematics, Mr. Kirkwood—who had visited the room for another purpose—saw a boy cutting a name into a newly painted workbench. When approached he found it was Patlov who had scratched I.E.P. in inch-high letters right through the new paint and into the wood. Mr. Kirkwood escorted the lad to me. Tried beyond endurance, I told him to pack up and not to come back.

The Patlovs have been contacted several times by the school in regard to their son's poor attitude. The father's attitude is that the son is not a liar and can do no wrong. It is the teachers who are at fault and all of them have a set against his son. The teachers' complaints are lies. His wife telephoned several teachers over the week-end ostensibly to gain evidence against me. She even went so far as to suggest to one teacher that Mr Kirkwood did not see her son cutting letters into the bench but only saw him tracing letters already there.

He is a very upsetting influence in the classroom. For this reason and for his extremely bad attitude I would ask that he be suspended for the remainder of the year.

Addendum

Ian Patlov visited the school on Monday at about 11.30 a.m. to collect his art folio. When he found that Mr Kirkwood and I were absent he waited until the lunch-hour and did his best to make himself a hero and to stir up a rowdy element (with some success) against the school.

Example 5

At approximately 2.55 p.m. on Thursday, 18 November, Miss Paul intercepted Alan Cook (Second Year student) aged fourteen loitering outside the main school office where another student, Karen Glover, had been placed for disciplinary reasons. The reason for his loitering was to give a watch to Glover. The watch was taken from Glover by Miss Paul and Cook told to go to his classroom (where he should have been).

Miss Paul entered my office to report the incident and pass over the watch. Cook soon followed. Without knocking, he rushed into my office demanding the watch. When I questioned him as to why he was out of his classroom, he shouted abuse and foul language at me personally, in the presence of Miss Paul and clearly audible to the two secretaries, and another staff member. A variety of abuse was used but the expression (addressed to me) "You're an —" was repeated *frequently* in very loud tones.

I requested Cook to leave my office. He refused. I ordered him to "get out", but he stood firm and continued shouting foul language for all to hear. I told him that he was stood down from attending further classes and to wait outside.

As I rose from my chair, Cook slowly but reluctantly made his way outside —still shouting "—", "Bloody —", etc., in full hearing of the ladies mentioned and this time in hearing of student Karen Glover.

He remained outside for only a few minutes, then burst into my office again, shouting, "I want my watch." He repeated this at least a dozen times. As he had obviously lost control of himself, I told him to go outside, cool off and I would see him at 3.30 p.m. and return the watch. To this he replied with a further tirade of abuse and foul language.

He left my office still shouting and swearing back. The teachers watching on were visibly upset by Cook's conduct.

Some ten minutes later when I was talking to a group of boys on the lawn, Cook appeared again. He demanded his watch with threats and many repetitions of "—" in front of the other students.

I told Cook that he had been stood down from school classes and to wait quietly until the school day was complete and I would interview him then.

At 3.30 p.m. I walked from my office to look for Cook. He was leaning against the wall smoking. I approached him and suggested that on his way through my office to collect the watch he should apologise to the ladies for his conduct and language.

Cook did this without persuasion. I returned the watch to Cook and he left the premises.

Cook has a bad record of conduct, he has been a disruptive influence for a long time and on many occasions he has adopted a very *aggressive* attitude to teachers who question his insolence.

During the incident described above, I exercised restraint and tolerance—at no time did I use force or threaten Cook in any way. He was not given corporal punishment.

If Cook is permitted to return to this school immediately there is no doubt that a similar incident could occur again. His previous conduct indicates this. However, there is some doubt whether I (or any other staff member) could exercise the same restraint and tolerance on a future occasion.

To place teachers and secretaries or other employees in a position of such extreme provocation again is an untenable situation and should be avoided at all costs. It can be avoided in this particular case by the suspension of Cook.

Example 6

I have today excluded from this school a girl Janet Price whose hair was not tied back in accordance with Regulation 19 (1). The circumstances are as follows:

Shortly before morning recess, Janet and another girl were sent to me by their class teacher for not having their hair tied back. I gave them each a piece of soft string—all I have which is suitable for the purpose—and requested them to fasten their hair. They did so and I then sent them back to class.

At morning recess both girls left the school grounds without permission, went to Janet's home and returned with Janet's father, who refused to allow Janet to tie her hair and would not listen to the regulation on the subject. In the circumstances, I said I would not accept her long hair left loose and requested him to take her home.

He asked me to put this request in writing, which I refused to do. As he insisted that he would not leave the premises except on this condition, I was obliged to call for police assistance. A constable from the local police station came to the school at about noon. Mr Price then left, taking Janet with him.

I took this action in accordance with Regulation 54, paragraph 2A, section (iii).

REASONS FOR SUSPENSION

A breakdown of suspensions for 1971 according to the type of offence leading to the action is shown below. Table 8.4, *Nature of Suspension Offences for 1971*, indicates a rather significant trend. A large proportion of suspensions are incurred by students who demonstrate serious out-of-classroom behaviour. Deviant behaviour from students inside the classroom is not usually an immediate cause of suspension.

TABLE 8.4

NATURE OF SUSPENSION OFFENCES FOR 1971

1. Offences against other students	
Fighting with other students	7
Aggressive behaviour	1
Assault on younger students	3
Stealing	3
2. Offences of sexual deviance	
Obscene language	4
3. Individual offences	
Drunkenness	1
Smoking	4
4. Offences against property	
Damage to school property	1
Trespassing	1
Detonator in school	1

5. Offences against authority and school order

Bomb hoax	1
Nuisance in class	4
Insubordination	4
Disruptive influence	8
Truancy	5
Deliberate disobedience	9
Libellous gossip about teacher	1
Threatening teachers	1
Rudeness	1

Several pertinent observations may be made of the incidents leading to suspension. First, most school administrators view suspension as a punishment serving a retributive function. In the first case the issue came to a head over the question of whether the boy would submit to corporal punishment rather than whether the boy would give assurances of future good conduct. The motive behind the suspension was the maintenance of "the good order and discipline of the school".

A second observation is that, as a punishment, suspension was not actively deterring students from misbehaving. In the fourth incident, the student concerned was able to flaunt his immunity from school authority before other students. Further, the student had parental backing during the investigation of the incident leading to the suspension.

Not all incidents described above are of equal severity, nor may all have been handled by school authorities as adroitly as they might have been. Example 6, for instance, appears to provide an illustration of a minor incident that has been magnified out of proportion. Several of the incidents were, however, unmistakably of a serious nature. It is difficult to see how the suspension of students for short, pre-determined periods will have any reformative or deterring effect. This is especially the case where parents, in the face of conclusive evidence of student guilt, choose to side with their child. The Committee feels that parents must realize that they still retain a responsibility for their child while he attends school.

Exemptions from school

Numbers of exemptions. There are many students located in Third Year high school Basic levels who are waiting with anticipation until the day they are legitimately released from the compulsion to attend school. The future goals of material success through further education are not as real as the rewards of receiving a first pay cheque, no matter how relatively meagre its contents. Students cannot be forced to learn at school though with little effort they can prevent others from doing so. It is not surprising that, for some students, limited motivation and the knowledge that, in a matter of months, they will be leaving school minimize the pressures to conform to behavioural norms. These students unduly tax the teaching resources of teachers and the school is responsible for their education and well-being. Their punishment for various infractions of school rules is likely to heighten an already intense dislike of formal education.

For this group of malcontented students who cannot gain from further school experience and for other students who would benefit from permanent out of school employment, a system of special exemption from school was initiated after the introduction of legislation raising the school leaving age to the end of the year in which they turn 15. Principals were advised that students who had definite job prospects, parental approval and whose best interests seemed likely to be served by full-time employment should be granted exemption from further schooling if all relevant circumstances were forwarded to the Welfare Branch of the Education Department. Table 8.5 *Exemptions from Further Schooling, 1963-1971,* details the trend of applications and approval for exemption.

TABLE 8.5

NUMBERS OF STUDENTS EXEMPTED FROM FURTHER SCHOOLING BY YEAR

	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
Applications received	349	343	559	811	2,319	2,236	2,547	2,372	2,195
Approved males	246	251	371	415	1,289	1,243	1,370	1,239	1,116
Approved females	53	54	128	296	952	943	1,125	1,094	1,042
Not approved males	32	28	24	61	31	34	30	24	17
Not approved females	18	10	36	39	47	16	22	15	20

Although exact information is not available, the majority of exemptions (some 90 per cent) are granted to students in their third year of schooling, in many cases towards the end of that year. The fact that students must be 14 years of age to be eligible for an exemption virtually ensures that the majority of students would be in their third year of secondary education.

Table 8.5 indicates that substantial numbers of exemptions are given. In fact, some 14 per cent of an age group are currently given an exemption. This policy undoubtedly has an impact on ameliorating tensions in high school classrooms. Maladaptive behaviour is not a category used in classifying the motives for application for exemption; however, an analysis of reasons submitted revealed that the large majority of students gain exemptions on the grounds of lack of academic achievement, a condition concomitant with maladaptive behaviour.

Further opportunities. The Committee is conscious that opportunities for formal education for these students should not end with their departure from high school. The value that our society places on accredited attainment at school may well be brought home to many of these students when the initial exuberance of life in the adult world has worn off. Table 8.6 below indicates that the majority of students exempted from school are channelled into unskilled jobs, many of which provide discouraging prospects for a full and satisfying life ahead.

TABLE 8.6

JOB PROSPECTS FOR STUDENTS EXEMPTED FROM SCHOOL BY YEAR

	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
Skilled—semi-skilled apprenticeships	106	81	231	269	846	684	775	748	631
Unskilled	170	196	241	328	1,381	1,152	1,254	1,184	1,155
General	23	28	27	14	14	377	466	401	372
Total	299	305	499	711	2,241	2,186	2,495	2,333	2,158

Every encouragement should be made at school to acquaint students about to be exempted from school with the availability of technical and adult education facilities available in the community before they complete their stay in high school. Hopefully, many will return and take advantage of these educational resources that can help compensate for the limitations of their secondary school experience.

CHAPTER 9

THE SCHOOL AND ITS ORGANIZATION

The study of organizational structure has long been of concern to social scientists. Much of this concern has been directed towards determining the relationships between the structural features of the organization and the adjustment of individuals within it. Mackay (1964, p. 1), in discussing various studies that have been made on the nature and effect of organizational structure, states:

> Basic to all of the studies has been the assumption that the behaviour of individual members of the organization is in some way related to the structural framework within which they work. Indeed the very usefulness of research into organizational structure depends upon the existence of relationships between behavioural factors and structures.

In education, as in other fields, research and opinion support the contention that the nature of the formal organizational arrangements, the physical surroundings, the administrative patterns that are adopted, as well as informal associations and arrangements that may develop, have a direct effect upon the behaviour and performance of persons in an institution

This chapter deals with some aspects of the school and its organization. In its deliberations, the Committee considered that there was sufficient evidence to justify the belief that such matters as the grouping of students, school size, school government, and plant have a direct bearing upon the quality of student behaviour and teacher/student relationships within the school.

ORGANIZATION IN GENERAL

The school in the system

In other chapters of this Report, reference is made to the vast changes that have occurred in secondary education in Western Australia since the time of World War II. Within the last 25 years, high schools in this State have changed from elitist organizations catering for the privileged, academically able few to comprehensive, co-educational centres providing a broad general education for all children in the lower school, and for all those who wish to take advantage of an extended education in the upper school. Gone, too, is the narrowly intellectual approach and, in its place, under the influence of the Achievement Certificate and its attendant organization, there is an emphasis on tailoring an education to suit the particular needs and capabilities of each child.

Organizationally, the direction and control of Government secondary schools is the responsibility of the Director of Secondary Education. Within a centralized state system, he is responsible for the staffing and operation of all senior high and high schools and the secondary department of junior high schools. Under this system, all decisions relating to administrative matters are centralized under the Director, but recently, following implementation of the Dettman Report proposals, more emphasis has been placed upon giving a greater range of decisional autonomy to principals in matters of an instructional nature.

Appointments to secondary schools

Secondary schools in Western Australia are under the control of a principal who has graduated through service in the various ranks of the promotional positions in the Secondary Division. The following are, in order of status, the various promotional positions in secondary schools:

Principal
Deputy principal/principal mistress
Senior master/mistress
Master/mistress

Promotion to any of the above positions in the Secondary Division generally requires service in the position immediately preceding it and no provision exists for accelerated promotion for demonstrated administrative capability or excellence. Apart from certain academic requirements, which do not include qualifications in administration, promotion occurs step by step as vacancies occur in the next level of the hierarchy. All positions below the level of principal are subject to appeal to the State Government Teachers' Tribunal. Recently the implementation of a promotion list for the position of principal has removed recommendations to this position from review by the Tribunal.

Flexible class grouping

The implementation of the Achievement Certificate has brought with it changes in the administrative organization of secondary schools. Under the influence of the Dettman Report, a multi-level structure is now adopted for the core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies and a unit approach for most other subjects. Coupled with this multi-level approach in the core subjects is the administrative device of cross-setting.

Effects of grouping. The Committee sought to determine whether or not the variety of level groupings and the constant changes of classrooms for instruction in the various subject areas had any effect upon student adjustment to the school situation. In the unstructured sections of the Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires, the opinion was expressed by some that the constant shifting of classes at period changes provides opportunities for acts of indiscipline and has an unsettling effect upon students because they have to adjust to constantly changing groups. Responses to individual questionnaire items substantiated these opinions.

Teachers indicated that arriving unequipped or late for lessons were student behaviours that they perceived to be most troublesome and increasing in incidence.

In order to assess the effects of changes in grouping from subject to subject, students were asked in their questionnaires, "Does having to split up into different groups for each subject worry you at school?". Table 9.1 sets out the percentage responses of students in the first three years of high school.

TABLE 9.1

STUDENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "DOES HAVING TO SPLIT UP INTO DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR EACH SUBJECT WORRY YOU AT SCHOOL?"

Response	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298
	%	%	%
Yes, I do not get to know my classmates and teachers well	8	5	3
Yes, I am separated from my friends	18	10	8
Yes, it is a nuisance	4	4	3
It does not worry me one way or the other	23	37	42
No, I enjoy mixing with different groups	41	41	41

The majority of students say they are unaffected by the constant changing of groups for instruction and, as students move through the secondary school, this changing of groups becomes less of a worry to them. Reference to the two categories, "It does not worry me one way or another", and "No, I enjoy mixing with different groups", shows that together they attracted 64, 78 and 83 per cent of responses in the three years respectively. A corresponding decrease may be observed in percentages for the other categories combined—30, 19 and 14 per cent.

While a majority of students in each year state that having to split up into different groups for each subject does not worry them, there are still numbers of students, particularly at the First Year level, who find the practice disconcerting. In the first year, this may be attributable to the transition from primary to secondary school with their contrasting instructional patterns. One would expect, however, that by the second and third year, the effect of transition would have considerably diminished. The continuing responses in each of these years would appear to be attributable to other factors.

In the analysis of responses to the Student Questionnaire, a comparison was made of the responses of those students who were at Basic level and those who were at Advanced level for all four core subjects. While these groups account for only 5 per cent of students in the sample, an examination of their responses does suggest reasons for the concern that some students expressed with regard to the splitting of groups for instruction in the various subject areas. Table 9.2 sets out percentage responses for these two groups of students for the question, "Does having to split up into different groups for each subject worry you at school?".

TABLE 9.2

RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "DOES HAVING TO SPLIT UP INTO DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR EACH SUBJECT WORRY YOU AT SCHOOL?"—BASIC AND ADVANCED GROUPS

Responses	Advanced	Basic
N =	491	216
	%	%
Yes, I do not get to know my classmates and teachers well	2	14
Yes, I am separated from my friends	7	14
Yes, it is a nuisance	1	4
It does not worry me one way or the other	42	27
No, I enjoy mixing with different groups	45	36

Responses in this table indicate strong differences between the Basic and Advanced groups of students. For the first three responses, those showing concern at the splitting of groups, the Advanced level show a total of 10 per cent, whereas the Basic level group responses account for 32 per cent. These figures indicate that a significant proportion of students Basic in all subjects are disturbed by the constant change of instructional groups. The figures for those students unaffected by changes in grouping support the above trend. In the Advanced group these responses account for 87 per cent as compared with 63 per cent for the Basic level group. While this analysis refers only to those students who are Basic and Advanced in all four core subjects, an analysis of all Basic level responses shows a similar trend.

While the Committee is mindful of the considerable advantages that accrue to a multi-level approach to curriculum construction coupled with the administrative device of cross setting, the evidence gained from student responses suggests that, for certain students in Basic level classes, such arrangements may have a detrimental effect upon their learning. These students may require the security of belonging to the same group for most teaching/learning situations and may find the emotional attachment to one teacher a source of security within the school.

PASTORAL CARE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Introduction

The need to provide for a greater degree of decentralization of decision-making within the school on matters of pupil care and guidance has been recognized in a variety of reports dealing with secondary education. The Spens Report (1938) recognized the need in schools for measures that would allow for a greater degree of individual student care and guidance. In addition to measures of administrative decentralization, such as the use of a "house" system, it advocated the use of a "tutorial" system in which tutors would be responsible for keeping close contact with a group of 30 to 40 students, and for the supervision of their in-school progress and out-of-school activities throughout their whole school career. The Report described the benefits associated with the scheme as follows (p. 204):

> We think it probable that such tutors gain a view of their pupils' development more general than is possible for form masters or mistresses, and more intimate and detailed than heads of schools can hope to attain, and that they would as a result be able to advise the pupils in their charge as to their choice of future occupation.

The Newsom Report (1963) also stressed the need for methods that place an emphasis on individual pupil care and guidance and in its discussion of the school community (p. 67) recognized a dual need in this regard:

> As we see it, there are two basic needs to be met, by whatever arrangement a school finds practicable in its circumstances. One is to ensure that sufficient factual knowledge is built up of the background and general circumstances of the individual pupil. The other is to try to ensure that as far as possible any boy or girl will have a natural confidant to turn to.

In Western Australia this need to provide pastoral care and guidance has resulted in the development, at a system level, of guidance and special education facilities, and at a school level a variety of administrative organizations designed to provide a closer contact between teacher and student. The introduction of the Achievement Certificate, with its multi-level approach, has led to an even greater need to combat a sense of fragmentation in instructional procedures, and of impersonality in the large school. The initiative to experiment in these directions has been encouraged by the Department.

In the matter of pastoral care, the Secondary Division has been encouraging the development of a year-master scheme. This particular scheme differs significantly from other year-master schemes that in the past have operated in some secondary schools.

Essentially, the year-master scheme entails the appointment within the school of a teacher who will direct the pastoral care of students at a particular year level. His tasks involve the supervision and co-ordination of those activities and services designed to facilitate student adjustment within the school, which provide for counselling and guidance in social, emotional, intellectual and recreational matters and which facilitate co-operation and communication with the home environment. The main emphasis in his role is that of fostering the non-intellectual aspects of schooling and of providing close personal guidance for the student in the school situation.

From the school discipline point of view, it is the year-master to whom a student with adjustment problems is referred and it is he who, in the first instance, will attempt to counsel the student or direct him to others who may assist him.

Administratively, where other administrative personnel—for example, the senior master—have duties which extend over the full range of year levels within the school, the year-master confines his attention only to students within a particular year level. He co-ordinates the work of other teachers within the year level in matters of pastoral care.

The Committee has reviewed a variety of schemes at present operating in secondary schools. Some of these have been in operation for some time and some have as their main objective administrative decentralization rather than student care and development. The following sections describe several of the many attempts now being made within schools to lessen the effects of large size.

The year-master scheme

An administrative arrangement actively encouraged in Western Australian secondary schools by the Director of Secondary Education is the year-master scheme. Several variations of the scheme exist. The following account describes an earlier attempt to introduce the concept. This scheme differs in some important respects from that now being adopted in schools. For example, recent approaches would not favour the administration of punishment by the year-master. In this particular case, the range of duties allocated to the year-master is somewhat wider than would be necessary if pastoral care were the overriding objective.

Staff organization. Within the school selected staff members are given responsibility for a particular year level or for a particular sex grouping within a year level. The following is the arrangement at present adopted:

Group	Year Master
Fifth Year—boys and girls	Deputy principal
Fourth Year—boys and girls	Principal mistress
Third Year—boys	Teacher A
Third Year—girls	Teacher B
Second Year—boys	Teacher C
Second Year and First Year girls	Teacher D
First Year boys	Teacher E

Teachers selected for the position of year-master are "very mature teachers" who have demonstrated by past experience that they can maintain a strong measure of student control and, in the case of male teachers, are willing to administer corporal punishment when necessary. In the case of female teachers there was a reluctance to accept the position. Even those accepting the position do not see it as a permanent appointment.

Year-master duties. Year-master duties cover a wide range. Basically their functions relate to discipline, administration and counselling and include among others the following types of duties:

The maintenance of discipline within the group.
The supervision of attendance.
Playground supervision.
Supervision of levels, reports, allocation of options, etc.
The organization of comparability tests.
Student records.
Community-parent-school relations.
Student counselling and teacher contact.

The delegation of these duties has meant that the principal and deputy principal now deal only with major disciplinary matters. Senior masters are also freed from procedures associated with discipline and routine administrative tasks thus leaving them free to concentrate on matters of academic organization, course development and supervision.

Disciplinary matters. Where disciplinary matters had been mainly the concern of the deputy principal and principal mistress, they have now been delegated to the year-master. Discipline in the school now begins with the year-master, and teachers, in the first instance, refer all offences of routine nature to this level. Should any serious breach of discipline occur, however, it is referred immediately to the principal.

The senior council, consisting of administrators, senior masters, guidance officers and year-masters, meets regularly to discuss matters of policy formulation, revision and implementation, and to agree on administrative or organizational problems within the school. The senior council is, in effect, the co-ordinating agency with respect to disciplinary and administrative matters within the school.

Staff reaction to scheme. The initial reaction of teachers to the adoption of a year-master scheme in this school was to consider themselves to be "over-administered". After several months of operation, however, most considered the scheme to have a positive effect in the reduction of minor disciplinary problems and absences.

At the administrative level, the principal, deputy principal and principal mistress see considerable advantages accruing from the scheme, particularly in the area of pastoral care. From a discipline point of view, the use of year-masters has relieved them of the burden of dealing with minor infractions and they are of the opinion that student attitudes towards discipline have improved significantly since the introduction of the scheme.

The tutorial system

The tutorial system aims to involve each student with a particular staff member in a counselling arrangement for the duration of his high school career. Operationally, the system attempts to involve each staff member as a tutor to supervise and counsel a small single group of students. In the school at which the tutorial system was observed for the purpose of this Report, these groups number approximately 22 students. The groups also form the basis of a house system, an example of which will be described in the next section.

The method of assigning students to groups has varied. At the inception of the scheme in 1970-71, single sex groups were allocated to a teacher of the same sex. In January, 1972, mixed sex groups were tried but in July, 1972, the scheme reverted to single sex groups. In the selection of students, every effort is made to match children with respect to personality, abilities, friendship links and behavioural pattern. The assignment to tutorial groups is made by the school guidance officer with the help of the headmaster and staff at the Grade 7 primary school level, in the year before children enter high school. In practice, this selection procedure has worked very well and few students indicate any wish to change groups. Staff changes, however, can affect groups. One tutorial group had five tutors in the two years, owing to transfer, promotion, resignation and retirement.

Operation. Tutorial groups meet regularly on the following basis:

Monday morning: 10-minute period for roll-call in tutorial group.
Tuesday morning: 35-minute period for full tutorial group work.
Wednesday morning: 40-minute full school assembly with students grouped in "houses".
Thursday morning: 10-minute period for roll-call in tutorial group.

As indicated above, the tutorial system is an integral part of a house system. Each of six "houses" in the school has allocated to it a double-roomed area. All of the tutorial groups comprising a house meet in the vicinity of the house area and, if necessary, can be combined quickly to form a house meeting.

Duties of a tutor. Unlike the year-master, tutors do not inflict corporal punishment on children. The tutor's duties are related more to pastoral care and motivation, and to routine administrative matters. Tutors also keep a personal filing system for members of their group, keep records of student time-tables and maintain a system of "truth sheets". (The truth sheet is a personal record of a student's grades and contains highly confidential and candid remarks on his academic, sporting, social and personal performance in the school situation.) Basically, the duties are those of motivation and counselling and the development of a close student/teacher relationship that helps overcome the impersonality often found in larger comprehensive schools.

Communication within the school. The tutor system relies for its effective operation upon constant and effective communication between all levels within

the school. Two main groups assist in this regard. The first is an elected student council which has a representation from First, Second and Third Years of two, four and six students respectively. The council meets once a week for one hour before school and its activities are set down in its constitution as follows:

The Student Council—
- shall be responsible for the conduct of student social activities;
- shall be rostered for duties as required;
- shall carry out the duties assigned to the council from time to time;
- shall give advice and present recommendations on matters concerning the student body;
- shall elect from their body four students to act as house representatives who shall carry out duties as indicated.

Liaison is maintained between tutorial groups and the council through discussion topics referred from one body to the other. The staff is represented on the Student Council by one member, elected by the student body, and one member appointed by the principal.

The second group is the Staff Advisory Council. This consists of senior staff, guidance officers and three elected staff members, including one who is not more than two years ex-teachers' college and one who is an invited representative from optional subject departments. This group assists in the formulation and revision of school policy and oversees the administration of the tutorial system.

The tutor system and discipline. The effectiveness of the tutor system depends on the ability and sincerity of the individual teachers comprising the scheme. In the school under consideration, it has been extremely successful, owing to the competent and sympathetic leadership given by the principal and by the co-operation of the staff at their appropriate level. Both the principal and staff feel that the very personal atmosphere engendered in the school by the scheme and the effective and efficient communication it has established between all levels have been a potent force in the establishment of a desirable school climate and a consequent satisfactory level of student discipline.

The house system

The house system of student organization operates within a number of high schools in the State. The following organization describes a house system which operates in a large metropolitan senior high school.

The aims of the house system are stated to be, "To provide greater welfare for the student and the school:

(1) By offering pastoral care.

(2) By promoting healthy competition in academic service and sporting spheres.

(3) By offering smaller units (houses) of the school to which the student is directly associated.

(4) By personality development through inter-house public speaking, debates and general public performances.

(5) By presenting speakers to help clarify student thinking on social issues.

(6) By imposing positive and negative sanctions for serviceable and disserviceable acts performed within the school and community."

The house organization. Under this system all students are allocated to a "house" according to alphabetic name order. The present allocations are A to D, E to K, L to Q and R to Z. Each of these "houses" is placed under the direction of a young teacher selected by the principal from volunteers and all other staff members are distributed between houses to ensure a balance of sex, age and status.

An attempt is made under this system to involve as many students as possible in the various forms of student government. Each house votes for house officials (a captain and vice-captain for boys and girls) drawn from the Fifth Year students. In addition, another six Fifth Year students are elected to the student council.

Housemaster duties. Housemasters are paid an allowance under Regulation 188 and assume a wide range of added duties. They are allocated a housemaster's room (where they are available) for student or teacher consultation during free periods, and each day one housemaster is rostered to be on duty during the lunch period to provide advice and assistance. Housemasters generally work co-operatively as a team to administer help and advice and students are often directed to them for a variety of reasons, particularly for school orientation in the case of new students.

Housemasters actively assist in school discipline. When a child is punished by the deputy principal or principal mistress, the nature and circumstances of the offence are recorded on a record card and the child is referred to the housemaster. The purpose of this referral is not for further punishment but as a means of determining the causes of the misdemeanour and to attempt to correct the attitude leading to it. Any punishment suffered by a student incurs a loss of house points in the inter-house competition.

Housemasters also assist in matters of school discipline by patrolling verandahs after the bell has rung to ensure that latecomers get to class and that each class is adequately staffed.

Inter-house competition. Part of the basis of the house scheme is competition. This is conducted on a house basis rather than an individual basis. Points are allocated to houses for a variety of academic, social and sporting achievements. Staff members may nominate students for up to five service points for any actions which they consider to be worthy of merit—for example, "picking up considerably more paper than requested—one point", "handing in found valuables to office—three points". Service points can be for school service or community service. Sporting points are given for low-skill games in which all students can participate and for swimming and athletics carnivals. In all of these, team responsibility and house spirit are encouraged.

The house period. The house period is an essential part of the system. The third period each Friday is reserved for this purpose, and during the time, sport, debating, dancing, guest speakers, etc., may be organized for the house. Pastoral care is also available for any student not participating in group activities and every effort is made to involve all students in activities of their own choice.

Staff and student reaction. Both staff and students enthusiastically embrace the house scheme. A noticeable feature of the scheme is the frequency with which students approach house staff for help and advice and, as a consequence, the administrative staff consider the decrease in student punishment to be amazing. Since the scheme has been introduced, truancy and vandalism have dropped considerably and rehabilitation of students through housemaster counselling is reported to be quite outstanding. In all, most staff agreed that school tone has improved considerably since the scheme was introduced in February, 1972.

A proposal for future development

An administrative innovation which has been brought to the attention of the Committee and which it is proposed will operate in a large metropolitan high school in 1973 is a form of decentralization that involves the development of autonomous instructional units within the school. Each of these will have its own administrative and teaching organizations and a large degree of decisional freedom with respect to instructional matters.

In its final development, the scheme proposes the creation within the school of autonomous "schools-within-schools" of approximately 350 students. Each unit will function independently, will be staffed separately and will have its own administrative staffing structure. A vertical partitioning of the school will ensure that the 350 students will be drawn from each of the year levels, one, two and three. A separate unit will operate for years four and five. In 1973 a pilot venture will involve only the first year intake of the school. With the experience gained from this venture and with necessary modifications, the scheme will be extended to other year levels in future years.

The scheme proposed for the first year of operation involves the following features:

(1) The formation of a single administrative teaching unit composed of the First Year student intake.

(2) The appointment of a temporary senior master whose selection will be made by the teachers of the unit, all of whom will be volunteers. This senior master will act as administrative head of the unit and will be given a clerical assistant.

(3) The appointment of two specialist teachers for each core subject. These teachers will restrict their teaching to the unit.

(4) Independent time-tabling of the unit to give it freedom in the scheduling of activities.

(5) The adoption of a team teaching approach in which teachers allocate their own duties and teaching assignments.

(6) The adoption of a student-oriented rather than faculty-oriented approach.

This scheme attempts to provide a structure in which a greater degree of teacher/pupil contact can be achieved and in which teachers can exercise a greater degree of professional discretion. It has as one of its major aims a reduction of the impersonality that often accompanies large organizations and seeks to foster a greater degree of professional responsibility than that assumed by teachers under present administrative structures.

Summary

The above descriptions are but a few examples of administrative measures that are being adopted within schools to provide a greater measure of student guidance and counselling and which contribute to the social-emotional growth of students. The Committee fully supports efforts that are being made in this direction, but it would deprecate any suggestion that punishment should be included within the framework of such schemes. It considers that every encouragement should be given to schools to experiment with the operation of such schemes and similar measures that would reduce in any way the impersonality that is often a feature of larger institutions.

These measures, the Committee hopes, will make a substantial contribution towards the establishment of mutually satisfying teacher-student relationships built upon respect and understanding. By these means, and others proposed in this Report, the tensions that exist between teachers and students in the classrooms of Western Australian high schools will be diminished.

While it recognizes the worth of schemes presently in operation and the fact that often those who provide leadership are compensated by way of teaching load, and by special facilities and allowances, the Committee considers that, in order to attract teachers to this field, some consideration should be given to the provision of promotional opportunities for those who wish to specialize in this direction. At the present time, senior master positions are provided for the core areas and for selected areas in the optional fields. There are, however, no senior masterships for those teachers who would like to specialize in non-academic areas which cater for the social-emotional aspects of child development. The Committee considers that these should be made available if able people are to be attracted and retained in this area.

Recommendation

The Education Department should give every encouragement to the development within high schools of administrative schemes designed to foster the pastoral care of students.

SCHOOL SIZE

Introduction

The question of whether or not school size has any effect upon pupil achievement and development has been the subject of debate and speculation in many countries. A review of opinion indicates a favouring of larger schools. Barker and Gump (1964, p. 195) summarize this opinion:

> The large school has authority: its grand exterior dimensions, its long halls and myriad rooms, and its tide of students all carry an implication of power and rightness. The small school lacks such certainty: its modest building, its short halls and few rooms, and its students, who move more in trickles than in tides, give an impression of a casual or not quite decisive environment.

Arguments in support of larger schools look to economy of operation, the better provision of facilities, wider ranges of student options, greater ranges of teacher expertise and the more liberal facilities and opportunities for sporting and recreational activities. Those who favour the small school point to its more individualized approach, its more intimate atmosphere, the reduced tensions on teacher and student, the better supervision and discipline and the fostering of a better school spirit in which the student and the teacher are not subordinated to administrative organization. Most frequently these views derive from limited personal experience, outside observation or reports received from others. In very few cases are they made on the basis of well-founded research evidence.

When reviewing the effects of school size, Stephens (1967, p. 78) states that "in many general discussions the small high school has been rather sweepingly condemned and its abolition recommended". He quotes research by Douglass (1931) and Garrett (1949), which showed little relationship between size of high school and subsequent university performances. A later study by Hoyt (1959) summarized seventeen previous studies. Of these, five found no advantage for either large or small schools, six found the advantage lay with large schools, three with small schools and three with medium-size schools. Hoyt's own study reported no significant differences in achievement between the various sizes of schools.

Stephens further shows that recent studies of a more rigorous nature than those carried out earlier obtain similar conflicting conclusions. A 1962 study by Street showed a positive relation between school size and attainment, whereas a similar study by Lathrap in 1960 showed no relation between high school size and university success. A study by Wiseman in 1964 which controlled for both intelligence and broad social background failed to show any differences which were attributable to school size.

Generally speaking, the studies that have been carried out in connection with school size have failed to provide any conclusive evidence to support either large, medium or small schools with respect to student achievement. There may, however, be advantages associated with other factors such as teacher satisfaction, the development of the "whole child", administrative simplicity and the like. With regard to the matter of school discipline, there would appear to be few, if any, studies which show any evidence of the effects upon discipline of small or large schools.

Western Australian opinion concerning effects of school size

In submissions made to the Committee, the opinion was frequently expressed that large schools had an adverse effect upon student attitudes, behaviour and attainment. In its statement to the Committee, the Secondary Students' Union noted:

> Large schools and classes mean a lack of personal attention and communication, between students and between parents and headmasters. In many large schools students may have different class mates in each class. It is naive to say this is beneficial because it is good not to form classes into cliques. Each student needs to have some stable environment in which he can find security especially in the unstable period of adolescence.

Another submission from a Parents and Citizens' Association stated that "schools should be smaller in enrolment (not more than 1,000)" and that schools should be divided into "senior high schools (fourth, fifth and sixth years) and high schools (first, second and third years)". In its submission, the Progressive

Teachers' Association supported this view and recommended that "the Education Department should adopt and implement a policy of limiting the size of high schools, so that no school has more than 1,000 students". This group saw that, because of large size:

> . . . most teachers have far too heavy a workload to enable them to cope with the problems of preparation of lessons of high quality at all times. The tasks of preparing lessons for five or possibly six classes, and of marking work set, leave few teachers time to give to their students —who may total anything up to 200—the personal attention and assistance which most ought to receive.

References which were made to school size in the submissions were made in support of the contention that large schools were impersonal and that, because of their very complex organization, large enrolments and extended staff list, the individual tends to become subordinated to administrative considerations. While in the small school teachers know all students, in a large school the teachers often do not even know each other. It was on the grounds of such beliefs that most recommendations were made.

The opinion expressed regarding the impersonality of large schools was repeated on numerous occasions in the written sections of the Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires. Teachers supported the view that the large school tended to ignore the individual and that often teachers did not get to know the students because of the fragmentation of instructional time occasioned by the complexities of time-tabling a large organization.

In the Administrator Questionnaire, by far the greater number of written comments referred to this belief. Many administrators expressed the opinion that schools should not be allowed to grow beyond an enrolment of 1,000 students. They felt that, ideally, schools should have an enrolment of approximately 750 students. Principals who stated this view considered that, in the smaller school, students gained a greater degree of individual attention and that, because of the less impersonal atmosphere, disciplinary problems would occur less frequently.

Further evidence regarding school size

Research evidence from studies carried out elsewhere is inconclusive regarding the effects of school size on matters such as achievement and few, if any, studies consider the effects of size upon student discipline. Generally, opinions expressed to the Committee in submissions and by teachers and administrators support the view that large schools have an adverse effect on discipline. In the questionnaires sent to teachers, parents, students and administrators considerable evidence was collected on this matter.

Evidence from the Teacher Questionnaire. In the Teachers' Questionnaire teachers were asked to indicate whether or not disciplinary matters were a source of worry when they teach. Table 9.3 sets the responses to this question according to school size.

TABLE 9.3
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS AND SCHOOL SIZE

Size of school	0–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	1,400 +
Rankings	4	22	1	2	10	6	5
	9	26	3	7	12	8	13
	49	29	14	11	20	16	23
	50	32	18	27	21	17	24
	....	35	31	42	39	15	25
	....	36	33	48	44	19	34
	....	38	46	....	45	28	37
	....	....	....	....	....	30	40
	....	....	....	....	....	41	....
	....	....	....	....	....	43	....
	....	....	....	....	....	47	....
Mean ranking	28	31·1	20·9	22·8	27·3	27·0	25·0

Overall mean ranking = 25

The figures in the columns of this table represent the ranking of the school based on the proportion of the school staff responding that discipline was a problem when they taught. For example, four schools from which responses were obtained had enrolments of under 400. These schools were ranked 4th, 9th, 49th and 50th out of the 50 schools included in the analysis. The school ranked fourth, for instance, had the fourth largest proportion of teachers indicating that discipline was a problem when they taught.

Inspection of the rankings within the table illustrates the lack of relation between teachers' perception of discipline and school size. Reference to the column of rankings for schools of "0-400" shows, for instance, that ranks vary from 4 to 50—that is, almost over the total range. A comparison of the mean rankings listed in the table also indicates that there is no evidence to support a linear relationship between school size and the incidence of discipline. Care should be taken, however, in the interpretation of this result, for it is possible that other factors may have confounded the relationship.

Further evidence of the relationship between discipline and school size may be gained from teacher responses regarding the frequency, seriousness, troublesomeness and degree of incidence of 28 potentially disruptive student behaviours. Investigation was made of the frequency and degree of incidence of these behaviours in high schools of various sizes. In the analysis of data, the following procedures have been adopted:

(1) Within each category of school size the behaviours have been ranked according to the frequency and the rate of increase of their occurrence. This information has been used to ascertain which

behaviours within that category of school size are the more frequently occurring and are becoming more common.

(2) Percentages have been calculated for those teachers responding that particular disruptive problems are occurring very frequently or are becoming much more common.

Tables 9.4, 9.5, 9.6 and 9.7 set out the data obtained in accordance with the above procedures.

An inspection of percentages in Table 9.5 (*Percentage of Teachers Responding That the Behaviour Occurred Very Frequently)* and in Table 9.7 (*Percentages of Teachers Responding That the Behaviour Was Becoming Much More Common*) indicates that teachers in smaller schools tend to see most potentially disruptive behaviours occurring less frequently than do teachers in larger schools.

TABLE 9.4

RANKING OF BEHAVIOURS ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE IN SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT SIZES

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0-100	100-400	400-600	600-800	800-1,000	1,000-1,200	1,200-1,400	>1,400
Behaviour								
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	26	27	27	27	25	25	26	26
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	8	5	8	8	8	8	9	9
3. Unauthorized borrowing of equipment	11	12	10	12	11	10	12	12
4. Complying with authority slowly	5	8	5	5	6	4	6	3
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	3	4	3	7	7	6	7	7
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
7. Use of an obscenity overheard by teacher	23	23	24	24	24	24	24	24
8. Damaging school property	17	21	19	23	22	21	23	20
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	6	9	7	6	9	9	8	8
10. Making "smart" comments about a teacher	22	18	16	20	21	15	21	22
11. Non-compliance with *school* rules	7	6	2	3	2	2	1	[illegible]
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than capacity	2	2	4	4	3	7	4	4
13. Telling deliberate lies	24	20	23	21	15	20	22	21
14. Cheating	12	22	14	18	19	23	17	16
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	25	26	26	25	26	27	27	27

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
16. Creating a disturbance in class	4	3	6	2	5	5	5	6
17. Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question	15	17	20	19	20	16	19	23
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.)	10	7	11	10	10	11	11	10
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warnings of punishment	18	19	18	14	18	19	15	18
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
21. Obscene writings, drawing, note-passing	27	25	25	26	27	26	25	25
22. Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust	19	14	15	17	16	14	16	15
23. Sullenness	16	15	13	13	13	13	14	14
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class school rules	21	24	22	22	23	22	20	19
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	13	13	21	15	14	17	13	13
26. Bullying or feuding among students	20	16	17	16	17	18	18	17
27. Ridiculing established school activities	14	11	12	11	12	12	10	11
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	9	10	9	9	4	3	3	5

TABLE 9.5
PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS RESPONDING THAT THE BEHAVIOUR OCCURRED VERY FREQUENTLY

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
Behaviour								
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	3	7	4	4	9	7	7	5
3. Unauthorized borrowing of equipment	9	4	7	6	11	8	9	8
4. Complying with authority slowly	5	[illegible]	3	10	11	13	11	13
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	3	2	7	4	7	7	7	6

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped to lessons	18	17	16	15	21	21	20	24
7. Use of an obscenity overheard by teacher	3	2	1	1	8	6	2	1
8. Damaging school property	5	....	1	1	5	4	5	5
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	5	4	7	9	9	9	11	8
10. Making "smart" comments about a teacher	1	2	3	2	3	8	4	2
11. Non-compliance with *school* rules	11	6	14	15	20	23	26	26
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than capacity	9	4	5	6	8	7	10	10
13. Telling deliberate lies	....	1	1	1	8	6	3	3
14. Cheating	....	1	1	3	2	1	2	2
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	....	....	....	2	2	2	2	1
16. Creating a disturbance in class	9	6	8	7	12	11	11	11
17. Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question....	....	1	....	1	2	5	3	3
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.)	7	7	2	7	5	6	7	8
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warning of punishment	1	2	3	5	6	6	5	3
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	....	....	1	....	1	1	1	1
21. Obscene writing, drawing, note-passing	....	1	....	2	2	1	4	2
22. Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust	1	3	....	3	4	6	4	4
23. Sullenness	1	2	2	3	5	5	3	3
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class school rules	....	1	1	2	4	4	4	4
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	....	2	2	2	3	3	4	2
26. Bullying or feuding among students	1	1	3	1	4	5	4	2
27. Ridiculing established school activities	....	4	3	6	4	7	7	10
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	9	5	6	8	15	13	13	11
Total percentage	3·64	3·25	3·64	4·53	6·89	7·00	6·82	6·39

TABLE 9.6

RANKING OF BEHAVIOUR ACCORDING TO RATE OF INCREASE OF OCCURRENCE IN SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT SIZES

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
Behaviour								
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	27	26	24	22	13	14	15	13
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	1	1	3	1	4	2	2	2
3. Unauthorized borrowing of equipment....	11	19	17	20	22	18	19	16
4. Complying with authority slowly	2	5	6	3	3	3	3	5
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	8	16	14	19	16	17	16	22
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons	5	9	9	5	5	4	5	4
7. Use of an obscenity overheard by teacher	21	14	13	12	14	9	13	14
8. Damaging school property	6	12	7	13	9	8	7	8
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	12	3	4	6	7	6	8	7
10. Making "smart" comments about a teacher	14	7	15	15	17	15	17	17
11. Non-compliance with *school* rules	4	4	1	2	1	1	1	1
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than capacity	7	6	9	10	8	10	9	9
13. Telling deliberate lies	19	21	26	24	21	21	23	26
14. Cheating	26	25	27	21	26	26	26	27
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	25	20	16	14	15	19	18	18
16. Creating a disturbance in class	3	2	2	4	6	7	6	6
17. Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question....	10	10	12	8	12	11	12	12
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.)	15	15	21	18	20	20	20	19
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warning of punishment	18	13	8	7	11	12	10	10
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
21. Obscene writing, drawing, note-passing	20	23	20	27	27	23	21	21
22. Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust	23	18	18	16	19	22	22	23
23. Sullenness	24	24	25	25	23	25	24	24
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class school rules	17	17	19	17	18	16	14	15
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	16	22	23	26	24	24	27	25
26. Bullying or feuding among students	22	27	12	23	25	27	25	20
27. Ridiculing established school activities	13	11	11	9	10	13	11	11
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	9	8	10	11	2	5	4	3

TABLE 9.7

PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS RESPONDING THAT THE BEHAVIOUR WAS BECOMING MUCH MORE COMMON

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
Behaviour								
1. Missing a particular classroom lesson	1	5	7	10	15	19	18	16
2. Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks	20	22	21	22	26	33	31	32
3. Unauthorized borrowing of equipment	5	5	9	8	10	14	12	12
4. Complying with authority slowly	16	18	19	20	25	30	26	28
5. Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm	14	5	9	8	12	14	13	10
6. Consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons	16	13	17	17	26	28	26	31
7. Use of an obscenity overheard by teacher	7	11	15	15	16	24	21	23
8. Damaging school property	18	14	19	20	20	24	28	28
9. Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order	5	17	16	17	19	26	21	25
10. Making "smart" comments about a teacher	9	17	12	13	15	20	17	16
11. Non-compliance with school rules	20	18	26	29	35	40	43	44

Total number of responses	54	188	200	210	239	315	613	449
Size of school	0–100	100–400	400–600	600–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	>1,400
12. Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than capacity	12	12	13	10	18	18	19	18
13. Telling deliberate lies	....	6	5	6	12	12	10	7
14. Cheating	1	4	7	7	7	9	7	8
15. Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher	1	13	10	13	15	17	17	18
16 Creating a disturbance in class	12	14	16	17	19	25	23	23
17 Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question....	7	10	15	12	17	21	20	18
18. Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.).	1	9	4	6	8	8	10	11
19. Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warning of punishment	5	16	15	18	18	24	21	20
20. Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher	1	7	8	5	8	5	7	7
21. Obscene writing, drawing, note-passing	9	8	12	10	7	13	13	12
22. Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust	3	13	7	10	12	11	12	11
23. Sullenness	1	5	4	4	9	7	8	7
24. Premeditated non-compliance with class school rules	5	13	10	12	13	16	19	16
25. Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate	....	3	5	6	9	10	7	7
26. Bullying or feuding among students	3	4	5	7	6	8	9	11
27. Ridiculing established school activities	1	11	13	14	15	17	20	21
28. Coming late for lessons and other school appointments	9	15	14	14	30	28	26	28
Total percentage	7·21	11·00	12·21	12·5	15·43	18·64	18·00	18·14

They also see the incidence of these behaviours as being more stable than do teachers in larger schools. Teachers in schools with enrolments above 800 apparently see disruptive behaviours both occurring more frequently and increasing at a faster rate than do teachers in schools with less than 800 students.

Reference to Tables 9.4 and 9.6 illustrates that within schools of all sizes, teachers, with very few exceptions, share common perceptions regarding which student behaviours are occurring most frequently and which student behaviours are becoming more common.

The fact that teachers in larger school perceive disciplinary problems to be occurring more frequently and increasing at a faster rate may arise from the fact that the actual numbers of cases of indiscipline is larger than in smaller schools, although the incidence per head of enrolment could be the same. That is to say, because of the greater number occurring, teachers may perceive to be more serious a situation which is actually common to all schools. This is, however, purely a matter of conjecture. Another consideration is that the behaviour problems that occur outside of the classroom may in part be symptomatic of simple physical size, particularly in the case of students being late for lessons. Larger institutions may be more difficult to supervise outside of the classroom.

The views of teachers regarding the incidence of behaviours that occur within the classroom are somewhat similar in schools of all sizes. This is not entirely surprising, since the classroom teaching units are comparable in schools of varying sizes. For example, reference to Table 9.5 indicates that behaviours 2 (making smart comments), 16 (creating a disturbance in class) and 18 (boisterousness) occur with equal frequency in large and small schools alike.

Administrator perceptions. Analysis of the responses contained within the Administrator Questionnaire revealed that there was a division of opinion among principals regarding the incidence of seriously disruptive behaviour in schools. While principals of schools with enrolments between 200 and 400 saw the incidence as being fairly stable, principals of schools with enrolments larger than 400 were almost evenly divided in their opinion as to whether the incidence was stable, diminishing or increasing. This relationship seemed to be independent of school location or age of the school plant.

Some evidence of the relationship of discipline to school size may be gained from the fact that there was a stronger tendency for principals in schools with only First to Third Years to see the incidence of discipline as stable or decreasing, than principals of schools with First to Fifth years. Furthermore, principals of high schools with only First to Third years were less inclined to respond that situations arise with which they find difficulty in coping. This result, however, should be treated with some caution with respect to school size, for the results could be due to a variety of other factors such as the age of the principal, age of the school and the socio-economic level of the community in which it is located.

Evidence from the Parent Questionnaire. In the sections of the Parent Questionnaire reserved for written comments, little mention was made of the effects of school size upon discipline. Analysis of responses by school size, however, did reveal some differences in perception among parents.

Although most educators would agree that close parent/teacher contact and co-operation are desirable features of any educational programme, analysis of parent responses by school size indicated that the parents of children who attend larger high schools are less likely to have any form of contact with the school, either through Parents and Citizens' Associations or by meeting the principal or teachers. In fact, fewer of the parents whose children attend large schools believe that there is any encouragement for them to visit and discuss their child's progress with the teachers or administrators of the school.

In the Questionnaire, parents were asked to respond whether or not they thought that discipline in schools was either too strict or too lenient. Table 9.8 sets out percentage responses by school size to this question.

TABLE 9.8
PARENTS PERCEPTIONS REGARDING NATURE OF DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS (N = 1,512)

	Enrolments					
Response	100–400	400–800	800–1,000	1,000–1,200	1,200–1,400	1,400+
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Too strict	1	....	2	....	1	2
About right	54	55	55	44	53	53
Too lenient	44	42	43	52	44	42

There is no apparent relationship between school size and parent perceptions of the strictness or leniency of discipline in the school attended by their children.

Student perceptions. Often those who argue in support of small or large schools assess the advantages of either type on a very limited number of criteria. To one observer, the question of individualized attention is paramount; to another the range of options available is the most important consideration; and others see the number of opportunities for cultural or social activities as being of most concern. The case for large or small schools changes considerably, depending upon the particular criteria chosen for their evaluation. In the data obtained from responses to the Student Questionnaire, evidence may be found to support advantages of either position. From the point of view of discipline, it would be difficult to make a clear-cut case for either large or small schools as the arguments change according to one's perceptions of the nature of discipline.

There is evidence to suggest that students in smaller schools perceive teachers to be fairer in their treatment of pupils, to be more contented, to be more work-oriented and to mix with students to a greater degree than do those in larger schools. Students in small schools also tend to perceive discipline to be better and to consider that schools place less reliance upon rules. A greater proportion of students found school more interesting in smaller schools (73 per cent) than larger schools (59 per cent).

While students in both large and small schools considered that student councils would "make school a better place to be in", it was in the larger schools that more emphatic support was given. Students in larger schools were stronger in their support of student autonomy in decision-making and government and while they strongly supported the principle of co-operative student/teacher participation in the formation of school rules, were more inclined to disagree that the principal of the school should be allowed to veto student decisions in areas of decision-making that have been allocated to them.

Generally speaking, however, the data from the Student Questionnaire showed no sharp differences between large and small schools with regard to discipline. If any conclusion could be drawn, it would be that there is a remarkable similarity between the perceptions of students in large and small schools over a very wide range of issues related to discipline and to school in general.

Administrative considerations

In its deliberations on school size, the Committee considered the administrative advantages of large schools. The main conclusions were

(1) Larger schools provide better opportunities for the use of teacher expertise than do small schools.
(2) Larger schools provide a much wider range of subject choice than do small schools.

These particular advantages may have positive relationships with school discipline, for both provide the student with a means of satisfying a wider range of interests and of receiving instruction of a high calibre.

At the present time, Education Department policy is to create schools with a maximum of 1,250 to 1,350 students. Schools of this size permit the maintenance of a lower school (First, Second and Third Years) of 900 students and an upper school of over 300 students. Table 9.9 sets out the sizes of secondary schools in Western Australia as at February, 1972.

TABLE 9.9
SIZES OF WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
AS AT FEBRUARY, 1972

Size of school enrolments	Number of schools
1,500+ students	2
1,300–1,500 students	14
1,000–1,300 students	12
800–1,000 students	7
below 800	21

Of the 16 schools listed in Table 9.9 as having over 1,300 students, four show a decline since 1971 owing to the establishment of nearby high schools. With the establishment of other new high schools, it is anticipated that the size of several of the larger schools will be reduced. Of the 56 schools in Table 9.9 half already have less than 1,000 students.

Summary

Evidence concerning the effects of school size upon the behaviour and performance of students in secondary schools has been gathered from three principal sources. The first was evidence obtained from research that has been carried out in other countries. Most of this was directed towards the effects of school size upon pupil attainment rather than discipline. The results from these studies are inconclusive and it would appear that they have attempted to measure a very limited range of educational objectives.

A second source of evidence was the opinions expressed in submissions placed before the Committee. In these, the opinion was frequently expressed that school enrolments were too large. Because of their large size, schools tended to be impersonal organizations in which the individual was faced with a regimented existence, and little regard was given to his needs or wishes. In effect, administrative considerations took precedence over educational and personal ones. By contrast, small schools were viewed as having warm, friendly student/teacher relationships in which the interests of the individual student were paramount and in which the teachers were able to devote a greater measure of their time to individualized learning procedures. It should be stressed that these opinions were unsubstantiated in any way.

The data obtained from Teacher, Parent, Student and Administrator Questionnaires, from interviews and from selected case studies provided the third source of evidence. This source provided no evidence to support either large or small schools with respect to the beneficial effects upon school discipline.

Overall, the evidence concerning school size is inconclusive. If economic operation and the effective utilization of teacher expertise is the main consideration, then large schools are more acceptable. On the other hand, teacher opinion favours the small school. If the effects upon school discipline were adopted as the criterion, then there would appear to be little to choose between large and small schools. In any assessment of advantages, the question of impersonality and meeting the needs of individuals must be given close consideration. The Committee considers, however, that the potential disadvantages of the large school in this respect can be largely overcome where measures are adopted administratively to reduce the impersonality and organizational complexity of the school.

Recommendation

The Education Department should encourage administrative decentralization ("schools within schools") within large secondary schools to provide for a greater measure of student/administrator contact and to assist in reducing the impersonal atmosphere that can be associated with larger school administration.

SEPARATION OF UPPER AND LOWER SCHOOL

Background

Western Australian Government secondary education policy has been directed towards the development of large co-educational comprehensive schools. This policy is consistent with developments that have occurred elsewhere in the world, notably in North America and the United Kingdom.

The comprehensive high school in this State has sought to achieve an inter-mix of students possessing a wide range of abilities and interests. A corresponding provision of subject and course offerings has obviously been necessary. The need to make full and effective use of specialist staff has necessitated the development of very large schools covering the full five years of secondary schooling. This practice represents the approach adopted in most Australian States, although in Tasmania separate matriculation colleges which cater for the needs of upper school students only have been in operation for some time.

In the submissions placed before the Committee and in written comments in a number of Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires, the opinion was expressed that there should be a separation of upper and lower school students. Two types of separation were suggested—physical and administrative. The first of these envisaged completely separate schools with independent administrations. The second is a separation in the sense of differential treatment with respect to instructional procedures, regulation of behaviour and the provision of amenities. Little if any support was given to the former view and most of those who put forward the proposal for separation did so in terms of the second.

Differences of student perception

One of the clearest conclusions to emerge from an analysis by year level of the responses to the Student Questionnaire was that very distinct differences exist between upper and lower school students with respect to their attitudes on a wide variety of issues.

A very apparent difference between upper and lower school students in Western Australian high schools exists with regard to recreational interests. Upper school students spend significantly less time watching television than do lower school students, but on the average, spend a much greater amount of time listening to music or the radio. Fifty-two per cent of First Year students, for example, say they spend more than two hours a day watching television compared with only 21 per cent of Fifth Year students. Lower school students read a greater number of comics than do upper school students. Fifty-seven per cent of lower school students indicated that they read one or more comics a week, and only 15 per cent of the Fifth Year students stated that they did so. The number of books read by each year level was quite consistent between year levels. Students in the upper school, however, showed much more interest in reading newspapers. Sixty-eight and 70 per cent of students in Fourth and Fifth Year, respectively, state that they read the paper every day, whereas the corresponding percentages for First, Second and Third years were 37, 47 and 53 per cent.

Similar differences exist between upper school and lower school students with regard to social interests. Both groups seem to have friendship groups of similar size, but upper school students have a greater proportion of mixed sex groupings. Analysis of upper school student responses also indicates that their friendships are more oriented towards persons outside of the school situation than are those of lower school students. Lower school groups seem to be more interested in latest fashions, consider it important to be good looking or good at sport, and are very interested in hobbies. Upper school students show more interest in school organization, in "going out" with members of the opposite sex and in current events and politics.

An analysis of responses concerning the particular hero or idol that students like to imitate further illustrates the differences that occur in values and outlook between upper and lower school students. Evidence from questionnaires suggests that there is a shift of interest as students progress through the secondary school. Students in Fourth and Fifth Years, for instance, are less inclined to have an idol than students in the lower school and there is a definite shift away from concerns with pop artists and film stars.

The above examples of differences in perception by students in the various year levels could be extended into a variety of other activities and interests. Some have been treated in other sections of this Report. The responses reported are sufficient to illustrate the changes in interests and values that occur between upper school and lower school. These differences need to be recognized in any consideration of the means of instruction adopted in the school, student participation in decision making and the regulation of student behaviour.

Student perceptions of school rules

In their questionnaire, students were asked to state whether or not they considered that upper school students should have different school rules from lower school students regarding dress, smoking at school, attendance at school and other aspects of behaviour. Table 9.10 sets out by year level the percentage responses obtained for this question.

TABLE 9.10

STUDENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "SHOULD UPPER SCHOOL STUDENTS HAVE DIFFERENT SCHOOL RULES FROM LOWER SCHOOL STUDENTS REGARDING DRESS, SMOKING AT SCHOOL, ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL AND SO ON?"

Response	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	21	24	30	59	64
I am uncertain	24	18	16	12	12
No	52	54	50	27	21

The responses reported in this table indicate that lower school students generally do not favour any distinction between upper and lower school with respect to school rules. In the Fourth and Fifth Years, however, a majority of students are in favour of separate rules. An analysis of responses by sex indicates that male students in the upper school are more emphatic in this view than are female students. Analysis of responses with respect to those who are Advanced or Basic in all four core subjects shows that Basic level students tend to favour the separation of upper and lower school more so than do Advanced.

Administrator perceptions

In the section reserved for written comment, a few principals pointed to the need to differentiate between upper and lower school students in the formulation of school rules, but this was by no means a frequent response. In the structured sections of the Questionnaire, several questions were asked regarding rules which indicate principals' attitudes on the matter.

Question 42 of the Administrator Questionnaire asked, "Do you insist (as far as possible) on upper school students wearing a school uniform?". Fifty-eight per cent of principals answered in the affirmative, which indicates that a large number of principals tend to treat upper school students very much the same as lower school students on this rather contentious matter. Some differences on this issue may be gauged from the fact that 81 per cent answered in the affirmative to the same question regarding lower school students.

A more definite indication of the differential treatment of upper and lower school students by school administrators may be gained from responses to the question, "Do you distinguish between upper and lower school students with regard to the observance of established school rules?". Fifteen per cent of principals stated that they did distinguish between the two sections of the school. This confirms the impression gained in responses to Question 42 that little difference is made in schools with respect to school rules for the growing maturity of upper school students.

Student leadership and the upper school students

As indicated in earlier sections of this chapter, the fostering of student government in secondary schools, in addition to the several educational benefits, may be seen as a measure conducive to the development of a satisfactory organizational and behavioural climate in the school. In order to assess the level at which this student government appeared to be most effective, principals were asked to state, "At which year level do you feel that student government has most influence?". The response gained from principals was overwhelmingly in support of the Fifth Year level. It may be inferred from these responses that it was from the Fifth Year student body that the leadership for student government was being provided.

While the effective operation of student government would not necessarily require the participation of upper school students—and there is evidence of effective attempts at student government in schools which do not have upper school enrolments—it would seem that their greater maturity would be a definite advantage. A review of the operation of prefect systems and schools councils at present in high schools suggests that the contributions of older students could have a stabilizing effect upon the decision-making processes of these various forms of student government. The advantages of leadership provided by the presence of relatively mature Fourth and Fifth Year students in the school suggests that any separation of upper and lower school may better be made in administrative and organizational terms rather than in the establishment of separate educational institutions for these two categories of students.

Administrative considerations

In the section of this chapter that deals with school size, reference was made to the problems of providing a full range of subject options in smaller high schools and in providing sufficient staffing to enable full use of specialist teaching. While such matters are only indirectly related to the question of school discipline, they need to be considered in any proposal that would be made with respect to the separation of upper and lower schools. Administratively the complete separation of upper and lower secondary schools would involve diseconomies with respect to the utilization of teachers' physical resources and capital. While a full treatment of these matters is beyond the scope of this Report, they should be kept in mind in any discussion that may involve the complete separation of the upper from the lower school.

Summary

An examination of all evidence presented to this Committee fails to reveal any convincing arguments for the separation of the upper school from the lower school. Although some in their submissions have suggested the physical separation of these two groups in the interest of improved discipline, not one item of evidence was presented to support this opinion.

In its investigation of this proposal, the Committee investigated teacher, student, parent and administrator responses to questionnaires and, while it appreciates that considerable differences exist between upper and lower school students with respect to values held and outlook maintained, these of themselves are insufficient to justify the physical separation of upper and lower school. The Committee does, however, appreciate that, because of the considerable differences in interests, behaviours, attitudes and academic orientations of students in the upper and lower school, some consideration should be given by school administrators to the ways in which the behaviour of each group is regulated. The use of physical facilities, the nature of recreational and social activities and the compilation of school rules should all be taken into consideration.

Recommendation

School principals should give consideration to the differential treatment of upper and lower school students with respect to the use of physical facilities, the planning of social and recreational activities and the compilation of school rules. This differentiation should take into account the varying interests, needs, abilities and maturity of both groups.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS

The current situation

The participation in varying degrees of high school students in the decision-making processes of the school is a well-established practice in Western Australian secondary schools. In many schools the use of prefects, school councils or a combination of both schemes are in operation. A survey of practices in secondary schools in Western Australia indicates that 77 per cent have in operation a system of prefects and 64 per cent have some form of school council.

The manner in which student councils and prefects are established varies considerably among schools. Table 9.11 sets out responses of administrators to questions regarding the means presently adopted for the selection of students as prefects or as members of school councils, in those schools which have these forms of student government.

TABLE 9.11
METHODS OF SELECTION FOR STUDENT GOVERNMENT
IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Response	Prefects	Council
Freely elected by students	30	52
Nominated by students but with some form of control by the principal and staff	43	5
Selected by staff (and principal)	1	....
Chosen by some other means	1	3
No response	22	37

From the figures detailed in this table, it may be seen that there is a significant trend within schools towards the free election of prefects and student council members. A comparison of the percentage responses for this form of student selection indicates that schools tend to give a greater degree of freedom in the selection of council members than they do in the selection of prefects. This more conservative approach to the appointment of prefects may reflect differences in the roles of the two positions. Traditionally, the position of prefects has been one of considerable honour; it has been a recognition by the school of personal virtues and scholarly achievement. A school council member, however, plays a much less visible role. His is participation in a form of student government and his selection is, ostensibly, made on the basis of his ability to participate meaningfully and contribute effectively in the process of student government. The caution in regard to the selection of prefects may also be seen in the percentages of schools responding that selection involves some form of control by the principal and staff. Forty-three per cent of schools indicate they do this in the case of prefects, whereas only five per cent respond in this category for student councils.

The demand for student government

The opinions of students themselves. The degree to which students should be involved in the decision-making processes of the school is the subject of considerable debate. Generally, the demand for such involvement has been made at a tertiary rather than a secondary level. At the secondary level in Western Australia, there has been no widespread active movement on the part of a majority of students for a greater measure of participation in student government, but there is evidence that some groups desire to encourage students to take a more active part in determining the patterns of their own behaviour and the directions of their own learning.

The desire of minority groups for greater participation may be seen in the contents of handbills handed to students in high schools by certain activist groups external to the school structure. In a recent handbill, the following claims, among others, were put forward:

(1) Students have the right to *help* determine their curriculum and evaluate their teachers.

(2) Students shall have the right to run any school election for any office. There shall be an end to arbitrary administration requirements and screening of candidates.

(3) Teachers have no right of veto over the student representative body.

Another publication by a group seeking to promote the formation of a Secondary Students' Union for Western Australian secondary schools, stated:

> The goal of student union activity is to change the education system so that it recognizes all components as equal in value and potential; so that each student enjoys and reflects the common and individual sunlight that is his inalienable right.

The desire by this group is further seen in the aspirations of one of its members:

> That the union being (as I hope it soon will be) a representative organization for the whole high school student body makes moves for changing the presently irrelevant English expression course.

These and other student publications bear witness to the desire by a few for greater participation in decision-making in schools.

An examination of responses contained within the Student Questionnaire gives some indication of the effect and acceptance of the views expressed in the above publications. In the first year of high school, only 15 per cent of students indicated that they had read them. By Fifth Year, however, this had risen to 43 per cent. Nevertheless, students did not appear to place a great deal of belief in the content of these publications. In First Year classes, only four per cent of students showed any strong belief in the content of these handbills and by Fifth

Year this had dropped to two per cent. Responses showed that 13 per cent of the students in First Year found these publications interesting and this percentage rose to 33 per cent in Fifth Year. Generally speaking, most students considered that these publications should be allowed to be distributed freely in schools.

In the Student Questionnaire, students were asked whether they considered that a school council would improve the high school situation. Table 9.13 sets out percentage responses regarding student attitudes to this matter.

TABLE 9.12

STUDENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "IF A SCHOOL HAD A STUDENT COUNCIL DO YOU THINK IT WOULD DO MUCH TO MAKE SCHOOL A BETTER PLACE?"

Responses	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	52	57	57	56	46
No	10	16	21	21	35
I do not know	34	24	20	20	17
No response	4	3	2	3	2

The figures in the table indicate that throughout the various levels of the high school there was a relatively consistent response by the students to this matter. In all years, approximately half of the students supported the opinion that a student council would help to "make school a better place". Only 10 per cent of First Year students expressed a negative response to the question, but the negatives increased through the years to 35 per cent in Fifth Year. Students in Fifth Year had less faith in the efficacy of student councils.

Parent perceptions. In the questionnaire sent to parents the question was asked, "Do you think that students ought to have more say about what goes on in school?". Table 9.13 contains the responses of parents to this question.

TABLE 9.13

PARENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION, "DO YOU THINK THAT STUDENTS OUGHT TO HAVE MORE SAY ABOUT WHAT GOES ON IN SCHOOL?"

N = 1,512

Response	Per cent
Yes	44
No	41
Uncertain	13

It would appear from these responses that opinion is evenly divided on the issue. Further analysis of this question showed some variations according to school size. The analysis suggests that the parents of students attending smaller high schools are less in favour of giving children more say than are the parents of students who attend larger schools. This may be related to the fact that smaller high schools tend to be located in rural or newly developing areas. The data available, however, does not allow any conclusions to be drawn in this regard. Analysis of the responses in terms of parent perceptions of the nature of discipline indicates that those parents who view school discipline as too strict also tend to consider that students ought to be given more say in what happens in school, whereas those who view discipline as being too lenient would like to give students less say.

Professional opinion. From the evidence received by the Committee from Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires, it is apparent that there is widespread agreement amongst teachers at all levels on the advisability of involving students in meaningful ways in the decision-making processes of the school. Typical of responses received from administrators were:

> I feel student councils, school prefects, year-master systems, tutorial groups are a *positive* approach to school behaviour patterns and must become an intrinsic part of every school organization.
>
> Involvement of students, through the student council, in some aspects of school organization is essential if responsible behaviour is to be achieved at all levels.
>
> A school council has operated in this school for some years with varying success. Last year the council did not function effectively and the council has been restructured this year. Matters successfully promoted by school councils, changes in school rules, changes in uniform, fund-raising activities, club activities, etc.
>
> The school council has been a positive force for good student behaviour. . . . Any request from the school council is considered by the principal, deputy principal and principal mistress and even by staff meeting. If request cannot be granted, the principal will attend the meeting to explain the reasons for refusal.
>
> It is felt that the school council is the best method of student involvement in school affairs.

The opinions expressed above were supported on many occasions during interviews with school administrators and, while a few misgivings were expressed regarding the limits of the student's decisional powers, the principle of student involvement received general support.

Summary

Student, parent, teacher and administrator opinion would seem, generally, to support the formation of fully elected student councils in secondary schools. From the evidence gained from educational literature, from questionnaires and from interviews, two broad justifications for their formation emerge. The first is the recognition that within a democratic society students must be taught, through meaningful participation, to accept responsibility for decision making on social, moral and political issues. A second view sees the formation of student councils as a means of involving students in matters relating to school discipline. Where students through freely elected representation may participate in the regulation of their own behaviour, there is a probability that a climate more conducive to student learning may emerge.

The powers of school councils

"For student government to sustain itself within the school environment it is essential that school councils be given meaningful areas of decision making." While most educators would accept this statement made in one of the Teacher Questionnaires, there would be considerable debate as to the exact limits to which student decision making should be extended. Most teachers and administrators would agree that students should be involved in the government of the school and parent opinion is similarly inclined. In the Parent Questionnaire, 56 per cent of parents who answered the question, "Do you think student councils should be able to play an increasing role in the government of the school?", signified their agreement.

Administrator opinion. In the section of their questionnaire dealing with school organization, school administrators were asked whether or not school council members or prefects had any real influence in determining school policy matters other than recreational items, such as the running of school dances and socials. Three per cent of those principals who had forms of student government in their schools indicated that their school councils had "considerable influence" and 56 per cent stated that they had "some influence". It was noticeable, however, that over one-third of the principals responding indicated that the councils or prefects had little or no influence. This failure to grant any real decision-making powers to student government has often been the subject of criticisms by various education writers. Silberman (1971, p. 156) raises this criticism:

> Schools are able to manipulate students into doing much of the dirty work of control under the guise of self-government. As Waller pointed out nearly forty years ago, "Self-government is rarely real. Usually it is but a mask for the teacher oligarchy," or "in its most liberal form the rule of student oligarchy carefully selected and supervised by the faculty".

If student government is used only as a device to manipulate students, then educationally it would seem destined to achieve little benefit in the school. Interviews and observation of existing attempts in Western Australian high schools indicate that student government, while at varying stages of development, is generally directed towards the achievement of meaningful student participation. Most schools administrators, however, see the need to develop within students those skills necessary for the effective use of government. One principal in illustrating this point referred to student participation in the formation and supervision of school rules and stated that, in his experience, student-imposed sanctions need to be reviewed by the administrative staff of the school "because they were too severe". It would seem that, in part, negative responses by administrators to the extent of student influence may be a reflection of cautious development rather than a denial of the benefits to be associated with student participation.

Student opinion. As indicated above, some minority groups see the need for extensive student involvement and wide latitude in the powers that student councils may adopt. The majority of students, however, do not seek the same degree of involvement. In order to evaluate student opinion regarding the degree to which student council decision-making should be taken, students were asked to respond to a hypothetical situation. This situation was as follows:

"Suppose the Student Council wanted a term social to finish at 11.00 p.m. and the Principal wanted the social to finish at 10.30 p.m. Should the Principal's decision be the final decision?" Overall 60 per cent of students stated "yes", 18 per cent believed that he should not have the final decision and 20 per cent were "uncertain". It would appear from these responses that most students do not see the authority of the school council as superseding in any way that of the school principal.

An understanding of the areas in which students wish to have a greater freedom in decision-making, though not necessarily concerning student councils as such, may be gained from the responses to Question 105 (see Appendix) of the Student Questionnaire. Students were asked to indicate whether they considered that they should be able to participate in each of a number of decision areas. Table 9.14 sets out by year level responses given by students to this question.

TABLE 9.14

AREAS IN WHICH STUDENTS CONSIDER THEY "SHOULD BE ABLE TO DECIDE"

Decision areas	Percentages of affirmative responses				
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Wear a school uniform	55	63	63	59	56
Attend a particular lesson or not	17	18	22	23	30
Play in school sporting team	59	66	70	78	83
Smoke at school or not	26	35	42	36	70
Study a particular subject or not	61	62	64	84	87
Leave school premises during free periods	23	29	33	40	46
Sit for tests or examinations	33	26	31	37	35
Go on strike	27	32	36	30	32

An analysis of the responses in this table shows that student perceptions regarding the right to make decisions vary according to the nature of the isssue and according to the year level in which they are located. To say that students desire greater participation in decision-making in all aspects of school life, therefore, would be misleading.

Reference to the total of responses given to the question without reference to year levels indicates that students desire a greater say in whether they should wear a school uniform, whether they should play in a school sporting team or whether they should study a particular subject or not. On the question of whether they should have the right to elect to attend a particular lesson, whether to smoke at school, whether to leave school premises during free periods, to sit for tests or examinations or to go on strike, there was not the same degree of support. The responses indicate that students in general do not evince any great desire to participate in matters relating to the organization of teaching/learning processes or in administrative structure, but do show a strong interest in matters that govern their personal involvement within the school. Matters of curriculum selection, personal appearance and recreational choice would seem to be areas in which students require a greater degree of involvement in school decision making. Reference to Question 104, "Who should make the rules in a school?" indicates that 84 per cent of students see involvement as a co-operative one with teachers.

Although the above comments refer to total student opinion, reference to the percentages in Table 9.14 indicates that the responses are somewhat consistent throughout the various year levels. It is evident from the trend of responses from First to Fifth Year, however, that there is growing demand for participation as students move through the school. The sudden increase in the percentage response of students in Fifth Year for the item "smoke at school or not" would seem to indicate a growing maturity on the part of these students and the realization that they have reached the end of secondary schooling and will soon be leaving for tertiary education or employment, each of which offers a considerably greater degree of freedom from restraints than does the high school situation.

Teacher opinion. The questionnaire sent to secondary school teachers was not designed specifically to gather teacher opinion concerning student government. The final section of the questionnaire, however, allowed for written comment concerning any aspects of discipline and examination of the responses in this section reveals some comment regarding student government. Generally, this comment was favourable to the involvement of students in "representative school councils with meaningful responsibilities". Further expressions of opinion on student involvement were contained in individual teacher submissions to the Committee. The following remarks are somewhat typical of the attitude adopted:

> I think the majority of our young people today are honestly seeking worthwhile goals and solutions to problems, and *dare* to be enterprising either positively or negatively, in their search.

> I think they will recognize, and respond to the same seeking, and spirit of enterprise in the adults of their world of home and school and given the opportunity, I think they would readily *prefer* to *co-operate* with these adults in *positive* enterprise.
>
> Autonomy in student government is largely lacking. Although student councils exist in a number of schools, the limitations placed on them in their activities and their lack of resources cause many students to regard them with suspicion or disdain.
>
> Student bodies within the school must be given autonomy within clearly defined areas and initiative regarding matters affecting the student body as a whole, including such matters as school rules, uniform and student activities.

While the limits of particular areas of decision-making are not specifically defined, it would seem that teacher opinion is very closely aligned to that expressed by students. Generally speaking decisional areas suggested refer to non-instructional matters and involve matters regulating behaviour, personal appearance and dress and activities of a social or sporting nature.

Summary

Evidence from a wide variety of sources and involving parents, teachers, students and administrators, supports student involvement in the decision-making processes of the school. However, students are not seeking total control of their school affairs. Rather their interest tends to be centred on specific areas such as the regulation of student behaviour, personal appearance and dress, course selection and social and cultural activities. Further, students do not want complete autonomy in decision-making in these areas. Rather they recognize the need for a partnership between teacher and student in arriving at mutually satisfactory solutions.

The Committee is of the opinion that the degree of student participation will necessarily vary from locality to locality. What may suit a school in a rural area may not necessarily suit a similar school in the metropolitan area; what may suit a school of 400 students may not suit a school of 1,500 students. One factor that does emerge, however, is that the limits of decision-making will be constrained very much by the political, administrative and social skills possessed by the participants. The need to develop competencies and acceptable patterns of operation in student government would suggest the need for progressive or guided introduction of this concept in high school. Some schools will already be at a stage that would support an extended participation; others may need a careful preparation both of teachers and of students. The necessity for teacher preparation is as much a reality as that of student preparation, for no matter how competent student participation may be its success will only be as real as the respect and acceptance given to it by the teachers and administrators of the school.

The Committee has examined reports on the development of student councils in Western Australian high schools and elsewhere and considers that such developments under the careful guidance of school staffs should be encouraged. It sees in their development a two-way advantage. In the first place, it provides for students an exercise in democratic responsibility and an opportunity to regulate their own behaviour in accordance with the wishes of the majority of students. It thus provides to the satisfaction of all concerned within the school an effective means of structuring interpersonal relations at all levels without the necessity for a one-sided imposition of rules on the part of administrators. Secondly, it provides an opportunity for the establishment of a teaching/learning climate better suited to the educational, social and emotional needs of all of those within the school.

Recommendations

The Education Department and school principals should give every encouragement to the establishment of a freely elected and representative student council.

Principals should give student councils meaningful responsibilities for decision-making in the areas of student behaviour, social, sporting and recreational matters and student dress and appearance, and the opportunity to express opinions on curriculum and school organization. These responsibilities of councils should be exercised in consultation with the principal and staff members of the school.

Due recognition should be given to the need for variety in approach according to the situation and the experience and abilities of the staff and students.

SCHOOL PLANT

Introduction

It is only in comparatively recent times that those who plan educational systems have come to realize the full importance of the physical learning environment of the teaching/learning situation. In the past, educational building has tended to be dominated by the twin forces of economic constraint and the need to provide cover for one teacher teaching a fixed group of children. Typical of teacher response to this situation is that of "Give me a blackboard and chalk and I can teach children anywhere, even under a tree if necessary." Where the emphasis in secondary teaching and learning was elitist and somewhat narrowly intellectual, and where the virtual objective of formal secondary schooling was a creditable performance in an externally imposed examination, this approach was perhaps understandable. However, where secondary education has been reorganized to encompass a much wider and diversified set of educational objectives, the need to provide a more flexible and adaptable physical environment for teaching and learning becomes increasingly apparent.

Modern approaches to learning theory and curriculum construction, technological advances and new concepts of teacher and space utilization have led to the realization that learning takes place not just in the traditional and formal teaching situations "but rather in a wide variety of situations and as a consequence of a wide variety of teaching techniques" (Downey, 1965, p. 24). These situations and techniques may be considered in three broad categories:

(1) Learning by receiving knowledge from an expert, *i.e.*, direct formal presentation by a teacher.

(2) Learning by sharing knowledge with others, *i.e.*, by seminar or discussing issues with other students.

(3) Learning through discovering knowledge, *i.e.*, by pursuing learning on one's own.

Most teachers now realize that effective teaching and learning must incorporate all three approaches and that, within the school, provision must be made for formal teacher presentation, for small group or seminar discussion and for individual student inquiry. The adoption of these approaches is even more vital since the introduction of the Achievement Certificate with its more flexible approach to teaching and learning.

The architectural arrangement of a school has important implications for the way in which it is administered. If variety of approach in teaching and learning is considered desirable, and if full advantage is to be taken of teacher expertise, student and teacher movement within the school becomes an instructional necessity. The movement of large numbers of people requires regulation and this is conditioned very much by the distance between rooms, the arrangement of instructional space, the placement of specialist facilities and the fact of single-storey or multiple-storey buildings. Where substitute or temporary buildings must be used these problems are magnified.

Building placement also brings consideration of external noise. The placement of a school building near a busy highway or an industrial complex, for example, imposes special problems upon the regulation of teaching and learning. Should the school be placed near a busy airport, this problem can be magnified into a problem of major dimensions. Similar considerations relate to the quality of lighting and ventilation.

A factor in student motivation often overlooked is the aesthetic quality of the school environment. Although relevant research evidence of the effect of the aesthetic quality of surroundings upon student behaviour and performance is not available, preliminary research carried out by the Research and Planning Branch of the Education Department with respect to newly introduced "open-area" design primary schools indicates that the aesthetic quality of the interior and exterior of these school buildings may have a positive effect upon pupil attitudes towards learning and upon their adjustments to the school situation.

Evidence from Teacher Questionnaires

While specific reference was not made to building design and facilities in the structured sections of the Teacher Questionnaire, frequent reference was made by teachers to physical factors which they believed contributed to problems of school discipline. Two particular matters worthy of note were the poor architectural layout of some buildings and the use of substandard or demountable buildings.

Placement of buildings. Teachers made frequent reference to the fact that some single-storey school buildings are so spread in the placement of rooms that student supervision becomes difficult at the time of period changes. Often students are required to walk long distances between rooms and, in doing so, the opportunities for misbehaviour are increased. The instructional time lost is also an important consideration involved in room placement.

Substandard buildings. Particular criticism was levelled by teachers at the use of temporary and demountable classrooms. Some teachers expressed the opinion that demountable buildings have an undesirable effect upon student attitudes, which is reflected by lack of tidiness, lack of care for buildings, and increased acts of indiscipline. Typical of teacher responses were

> They know these demountables aren't going to stay and don't care about looking after tidiness.
>
> Teaching in a demountable is twice as hard as in ordinary classrooms—they don't care in demountables.

Administrator perception of physical facilities

Evidence regarding the use of "makeshift" and demountable classrooms was given in responses to the Administrator Questionnaire. Table 9.15 sets out the numbers of these rooms being used in Western Australian high schools.

TABLE 9.15

PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOLS WITH VARIOUS NUMBERS OF TEMPORARY CLASSROOMS

Type of classroom	Number of temporary classrooms								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	0
	Percentage of high schools								
Makeshift	15	7	7	9	....	....	3	....	56
Demountables	5	11	3	3	3	5	3	1	60

It is apparent that a considerable number of demountable and temporary classrooms are in use in Western Australian secondary schools. This would seem to be related mainly to

(1) Temporary arrangements made in fast-growing areas until reliable estimates of growth are obtained for future planning.

(2) Budgetary restrictions and the establishment of building priorities.

(3) Sudden and unanticipated growth in student enrolments.

Administrator opinion regarding the use of such "makeshift" and demountable classroom space would seem to confirm the opinion of teachers with regard to disciplinary problems and teacher attitudes in these buildings.

Evidence from other sources

Some opinion regarding physical facilities was expressed in the submissions presented to the Committee. In one the opinion was given that

> The physical environment . . . is a very important and determining factor of students' attitudes to discipline. Large classes, grey walls and bitumen quadrangles all create discipline problems.

The submissions went on to say that

> the present layout of schools emphasizes depersonalization and this can only be overcome by decreasing the bureaucracy; taking power from the headmasters and leaving the way open for students, teachers and parents to take an active part in schools, designing gardens and painting classrooms.

Another submission stated:

> The "railcar" design of most schools, the inadequate fitting out of most rooms to enable the maximum use of many audio-visual aids and the necessity to use every room for the maximum number of periods per week place severe limitations on the kind of use that may be made of school buildings.

The above expressions were supplemented by a few statements in the Parent Questionnaire referring mainly to demountable buildings. In the main, however, little reference was made by parents to the question of physical facilities.

Summary

From the evidence obtained by interview and through Teacher, Administrator and Parent Questionnaires, it would appear that there is a relationship between the quality and layout of school buildings and the maintenance of effective discipline. In the absence of clear-cut evidence, however, the Committee is unable to offer any opinion regarding the strength of the relationship.

It is evident from various submissions that the siting of buildings has an important effect upon learning and discipline. Where buildings are sited near excessively noisy thoroughfares, airports or industrial areas, noise can be a factor leading to student distraction and possible acts of indiscipline.

The Committee considers that the use of demountable buildings could be a factor in establishing a climate which contributes to acts of indiscipline among students. At the same time, it is aware that because of planning requirements, sudden enrolment increases or economic constraints their use is unavoidable. It would, however, like to make the suggestion that wherever possible the use of demountable classrooms be kept to a minimum.

Recommendations

Where school buildings are to be built in areas where excessive noise is a possibility consideration should be given to measures of soundproofing instructional areas.

The Education Department should investigate the relationship between discipline and the design and situation of school buildings, with particular emphasis on the noise problem.

CHAPTER 10

ASPECTS OF CURRICULUM

THE ACHIEVEMENT CERTIFICATE SYSTEM

Introduction

Secondary education in Western Australia has traditionally been dominated by the requirements of external examinations. Before 1970, a major aim of secondary schools in this State was to enable students to pass the examinations conducted by the Public Examinations Board and so to qualify for the Junior Certificate at the end of the third year of high school, or the Leaving Certificate at the end of the fifth year. These external examinations acted as strong constraints to sound curriculum development and teaching methods, for teachers tended to concentrate on the examinable aspects of the curriculum. Today, however, as a result of re-organization that has taken place following the implementation of the recommendations of the Dettman Report, the Junior Certificate has been replaced in all Government secondary schools by the Achievement Certificate. This Achievement Certificate, instead of relying on a single examination, records student achievement over the first three years of secondary education. To maintain comparability between schools, a system of moderation is employed.

Although the Leaving Certificate Examination remains for the upper school, the fact that the lower school is now freed from the restraints of external examinations enables teachers to concentrate on the broad aims of education, the promotion of the students' intellectual development, integration into society, physical and mental health, economic competence, and moral and spiritual growth.

In 1969, following from the recommendations of the Dettman Report, the Board of Secondary Education was established to exercise a general overview of the curricula of all secondary schools in Western Australia and to be responsible for the award of certificates of secondary education. This Board, through its various committees, acts in an advisory capacity in relation to the construction of subject syllabuses, including such aspects as objectives, selection and organization of content, and evaluation techniques. The approval of syllabuses submitted by individual schools or groups of schools is also an important function of the Board.

Since its inception the Board of Secondary Education has encouraged schools to direct their energies primarily towards satisfying the aims of secondary education set down in the Dettman Report. That Report states (para. 72) that the basic aim of secondary education is

> to provide the opportunity for girls and boys to develop as individuals and citizens whose attitudes and attainments enable them to live full lives, to contribute to society and to obtain employment satisfactory to themselves and their employers.

In broad terms, the aims of the Achievement Certificate as expressed in the Education Department publication, *Achievement Certificate Courses for Students in the First Three Years of Secondary Education*, are that:

(1) Each student should have the opportunity to experience a wide range of subjects before being required to specialize.
(2) Individual differences between students, and between subjects for any one student, exist. These differences should be recognized and provision made for them.
(3) Each student's performance should be internally assessed continuously over a period of time rather than by a "one-shot" examination.

The expression of these aims has, over a period of approximately three years since the Board's inception led to considerable curricular innovation. For example, four separate science courses are recognized by the Board. The most popular course, the Lower Secondary Science programme, has been modified, with the Board's approval, in a number of schools. The provision of Research Projects within most courses allows teachers considerable initiative to structure portions of the approved courses to suit particular student interests and capabilities.

Courses offered under the Achievement Certificate

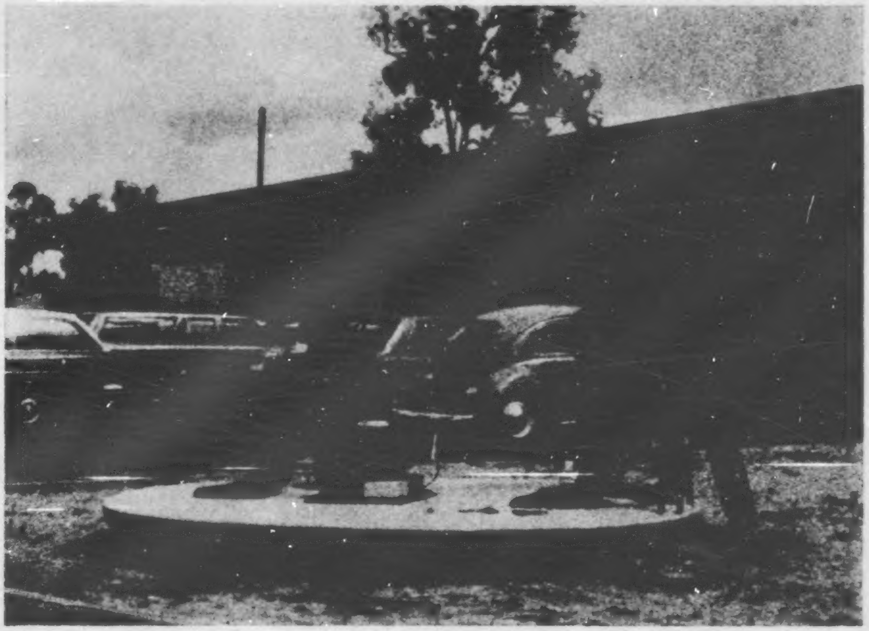
Under the Achievement Certificate three types of subjects are offered. These groupings of subjects are termed (a) core subjects, (b) required subjects, (c) optional subjects.

Core subjects. In the first three years of high school all students are required to study the four core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies. To allow for individual differences, each core subject is offered at a number of levels of difficulty. In English, science and social studies, three levels of instruction—"Advanced", "Intermediate" and "Basic"—are offered. Advanced level for above average students is defined as being for the upper 25 per cent of ability throughout the State, not necessarily within a school; Intermediate level, which is for average students, is for the middle 50 per cent; the Basic level, which comprises the lower 25 per cent of ability in the subject, is for below-average students. In mathematics, four levels, "Advanced", "Ordinary", "Elementary", and "Basic" are offered, with 25 per cent of all students in the State working at each level.

Provision for changing levels is an integral part of the Achievement Certificate scheme, although upward mobility in mathematics and science becomes difficult after the first term of the second year. Recommendations for movement between levels are made as a result of a process of continual assessment, using a number of measures over a period of time. In practice, a great deal of emphasis is placed on more recent assessments to determine the appropriateness of a proposed change in levels. In this way, those who improve performance and those whose development accelerates at a later stage are recognized. Adjustment classes are used on a short-term basis to facilitate the movement of students between levels in core subjects, particularly in mathematics and science. These adjustment classes are constituted by the school principal after consultation with the Education Department. In 1972, 11 classes operated in the field of mathematics.

Optional subjects. During their first year at high school, students are introduced to the major optional areas, and in their second and third years students take ten periods per week of options (or elective subjects). These options are selected by each student and his parents from the range of elective subjects offered by the school. In the second year, Basic level students may increase the number of elective subjects by reducing from six to four the number of mathematics periods that they are required to take. In the third year, all four core subjects may be reduced from six periods to four periods for Basic level students and additional options are offered.

Although courses in the optional areas are approved by the Board of Secondary Education, schools are free to vary these according to their wishes. Where substantial changes are contemplated, however, details of such changes must be submitted to the Board of Secondary Education for approval.



The range of options available in the first three years of secondary school is quite extensive. Table 10.1 sets out the subjects at present offered in high school throughout the State. While most subjects are available in larger high schools, in small high schools the full range may not be available because of the limited number of staff.

TABLE 10.1

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS AVAILABLE IN WESTERN AUSTRALIAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Area	Options
1. Art/Crafts	Art/Crafts 2, 3
	Art/Crafts Vocational 1, 2
2. Business Education	Business Principles and Practice 1
	Consumer Education 1, 2
	Retail Trade 1
	Typewriting 1, 2, 3. 4
	Typewriting Personal 1
3. Home Economics	Clothing and Fabrics 2, 3
	Food and Nutrition 2, 3
	Homemaking 1, 2
4. Foreign Languages	French 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	German 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	Indonesian 1, 2, 3, 4
	Italian 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	Japanese 1, 2, 3, 4
5. Manual Arts	Metalwork 2, 3
	Metalwork Applied 1, 2
	Metalwork Freeform 1, 2
	Woodwork 2, 3
	Woodwork Applied 1, 2
	Woodwork Freeform 1
	Technical Drawing 1, 2
	Technical Drawing Applied 1, 2
6. Pre-Vocational	Boating 1, 2
	General Metals 1, 2
	Home Handyman 1, 2
	Transport 1, 2
7. Special	Electricity 1, 2
	Photography 1, 2
	Plastics and Lapidary 1, 2
8. Music	Music Class 1, 2
	Music Instrumental 1, 2

9. **Physical Education**	Dance 1 Outdoor Education 1
10. **Miscellaneous**	Christian Education 1, 2 Community Health Drama 1, 2 Film-Making 1, 2 Grooming and Deportment 1 Mathematics Enrichment 1, 2 Speech 1 Writing 1

A more able student who has a special interest in a core subject may elect to take one option in that same area in each of the second and third years. These courses are only offered on the understanding that the content is not the same as that which is included in upper or lower school core subjects. These options cater for special interests and are not preparation for upper school work. Such courses are generally referred to as "directed study".

Required subjects. In addition to core and elective subjects, students are required by the Education Department to take physical education, health education, and workshops in human relations in all three years. In some years, students will also take speech and library as additional non-core required subjects.

Comparability testing

In order to establish a basis of comparison of achievement between schools comparability surveys are carried out by the Board of Secondary Education. In each core subject four comparability tests are administered. Series 1 tests are taken by all first year students early in their first year of high school and Series 2 at the end of this year. Series 3 tests are taken by all second year students near the end of the second year and Series 4 tests, which are not compulsory, may be administered early in the third term of third year. The comparability surveys provide information on how a group of students performs relative to all other students in the State. From the results of the surveys, levels of achievement can be determined knowing that these levels have meaning when compared with similar levels in other schools.

Subject period allocations

High schools in Western Australia generally operate on a forty period week. Each period normally extends for 40 minutes. The following period allocations are those suggested to schools for First Year students by the Education Department.

Core subjects	**Periods/week**
English	6
Mathematics	6
Science	6
Social Studies	6

Non-core subjects	
Art/Crafts	2
Drawing	2
Health Education	1
Human Relationships	1
Manual Arts/Home Economics	4
Physical Education	3
Religious Instruction	1
Speech/Music/Library	3

Those students who wish to take a foreign language in the first year may do so for four periods per week by not taking two periods of art/crafts and two periods of speech/music/library.

The following period allocations are those suggested for Second and Third Year students.

Core subjects	**Periods/week**
English	6
Mathematics	6
Science	6
Social Studies	6
Non-core required subjects	
Health Education	1
Human Relations	1
Physical Education	4
Speech/Music/Library	1

Optional subjects

Five units from those offered by the school	10

Those Second Year students who are Basic level in mathematics may take only four periods of mathematics and an additional optional subject to make a total of 12 periods in the optional subject area. In Third Year, students who are in the Basic level group in one or more core subjects may replace two periods for each core subject with an additional option. A student who is in the Basic level group in all four core subjects, therefore, may take a total of 16 periods in the core subject areas and a total of nine optional units for 18 periods per week.

Special provisions

Special provisions are made for both gifted and handicapped children, with specially selected schools providing classes for students with special strengths or handicaps in specific subject areas. In other areas, these students are integrated with the regular school programme. Table 10.2 sets out by school the specialist facilities that have been available for talented students since 1967.

TABLE 10.2

PROVISION FOR TALENTED STUDENTS

School	Special Provision
Perth Modern	Music
Churchlands	Music
Applecross	Art
Hollywood	Mathematics
Mount Lawley	Foreign languages
Kent Street	Foreign languages
John Curtin	Drama

Selection for inclusion in these special classes is made in response to application following advertisement and includes interview and teacher recommendation amongst its procedures.

Upper school classes

Courses for Fourth and Fifth Year classes are not yet subject to moderated internal assessment. These courses generally lead to the Leaving Certificate and/or Matriculation Examination. Specified combinations of passes in these examinations are pre-requisite to entry to the University of Western Australia or the Western Australian Institute of Technology. Students in Government secondary schools generally study a selection of seven Leaving Certificate subjects in Fourth Year and six in Fifth Year. In some high schools, the increasing retention rate has led to the establishment of several courses terminating at Fourth Year level and alternative to those leading to the Leaving Certificate.

Satisfaction with course availability

Comparisons among year levels. In their questionnaire students were asked, "How much of the things that you are now studing in school deals with the things you really want to know?".

Table 10.3 indicates student responses to this item categorized by year level.

TABLE 10.3

STUDENT VIEWS OF RELEVANCE OF CURRICULUM CATEGORIZED BY YEAR LEVEL

Degree of relevance of curriculum	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5
N =	1,407	1,392	1,298	593	372
	%	%	%	%	%
Great amount	23	21	16	28	24
Moderate amount	54	57	56	55	57
Very little	21	20	26	15	18

Overall, 21 per cent of students stated "a great amount", 55 per cent stated "a moderate amount", and 21 per cent "very little". This result was consistent across all year levels, but, when analysed by achievement level, the results indicated that a larger proportion of Basic level students than Advanced level students saw that what they were studying was not really related to their interests.

Results of questionnaire items relating to the relevance of material learnt at school for pursuing a career after leaving school produced a similar distribution of results by year level and achievement level. Analysis of responses of students regarding their perceptions of the adequacy of the curriculum in catering for student needs for understanding and enjoying life produced a different pattern of responses. There is a definite trend for upper school students to regard the school as failing to provide curricula capable of satisfying broader student interests. Twenty-nine per cent of Fifth Year students compared with 10 per cent of First Year students responded that very little of what they learnt at school would help them to understand and enjoy life apart from their jobs when they left school. The Committee would hope that the extension of the Achievement Certificate into the upper school will allow schools to offer a more satisfying range of courses.

Parents' perceptions. Responses made by parents in the Parent Questionnaire show that most are satisfied with the courses offered at school. Asked whether their children were currently studying the subjects which they considered to be of most value to them, 77 per cent replied in the affirmative and only nine percent stated that they were dissatisfied. Similarly, a majority of parents saw that the schools which their children were attending were providing the full range of required subjects. In this case, however, 18 per cent saw that there were some subjects which were not available. Further analysis of replies would seem to indicate that some of these subjects are related to foreign languages and to specialized instruction in areas of particular interest, e.g. special art, special music, etc. Availability of courses would seem to be a major issue in determining whether a parent was satisfied with the education that their child was receiving. There was a strong relationship between parents expressing dissatisfaction with the provision of courses within a school and their overall evaluation of the adequacy of the type of education that the school had to offer.

Students most frequently punished. Perhaps as a result of the general aversion towards school that has been described elsewhere in the Report, the group of students frequently and severely punished tend to view disparagingly the courses offered at school. These students are less likely to enjoy core subjects, though they express a stronger interest in manual arts or home economics than other students. Exclusion from these subjects would be looked upon by such students as a punishment. Some deputy principals stated that they had used the threat of exclusion from pre-vocational workshop periods as a means of controlling the behaviour of certain Basic level students.

Only 17 per cent of the group referred to the deputy principal or principal mistress, as against 33 per cent of those who had not been referred, believed that "a great deal" of what they were learning at school had relevance for the job they intended to occupy when they left school. Many of these students will assume semi-skilled or unskilled jobs when they leave school, and find the value of the core subjects questionable.

Basic level courses. Within the sections of the Teacher Questionnaire reserved for written comment, the opinion was expressed by many teachers that the structure and content of Basic level courses were unsuited to the needs and abilities of students. Often, these courses were seen as merely "pale" or "watered-down" versions of those offered to Advanced level students and, because of this, failed to secure student interest. Contained within Basic level groupings is a small percentage of students who are often referred to as "basic Basics" or "below Basics". Teachers consider that, for these students, the Basic level courses are relatively unsuited and often lead to student boredom and frustration.

This criticism of the suitability of Basic level courses highlights a possible conflict within the structure of the Achievement Certificate scheme. If transferability between levels is to be maintained to cater for individual differences, then some correspondence between course structure and content at various levels needs to be maintained. The assumption, however, that courses of similar structure and content will be suited to the interests and abilities of students in all levels may be open to question, or the possibility that teaching/learning approaches need drastic revision may need careful consideration.

Realistically there is always likely to be some dissatisfaction with the curricula offered by a school. The school cannot please everybody. Hence the view that the up-dating of Basic level courses will lead to a reduction in discipline problems is unlikely to be as valid as its proponents suggest. This point is recognized by Dreeben (1970, p. 79), who notes:

> The old argument that discipline problems disappear when teachers appeal to the real interests of pupils crumbles when one realizes that pupils have many interests that schools cannot cater to, and that they may not be interested in the activities that schools make available to them.

Effects of time-tabling. Some parent and student dissatisfaction with course availability arises as a result of restrictions placed on subject choice by the necessities of school time-tabling. This restriction is due in large measure to such factors as school size and specialist teacher availability, and operates mainly with respect to course selection in the upper school. Reference to the procedures of course selection operating in one large metropolitan senior high school will serve to illustrate the restrictions that are placed on subject choice.

In this particular high school, upper school subject choice must be made from a "grid" of subjects. Table 10.4 sets out this grid.

TABLE 10.4

SUBJECT GRID—SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Row	Subjects			
	1	2	3	4
1	English	Maths 1	English Literature	German
2	Maths 2	English	Maths 1	Art/T.D./H.Ec.
3	Maths 3	History	English Literature	Human Biology
4	Physics	Biology	Chemistry	Economics
5	Chemistry	Geography	History	Biology
6	French	English	Geography	Economics/Art/T.D. Home Economics

A student making a choice of subjects in the fourth year must choose one subject from each of the six rows contained within the Table. Either English or English Literature is a compulsory subject for matriculation and must therefore normally be chosen from one of the rows. He may choose, should he wish, any of the complete columns 1, 2, 3 or 4 to obtain his six subjects, or he may choose any combination by column so long as he does not choose more than one subject from any row.

This grid arrangement offers to students a wide choice of subjects but it does preclude the choice of certain subject combinations. A student could not, for instance, take all three of Physics, French and Economics. He could not take Human Biology and Mathematics 3, or all three of Chemistry, French and Geography. A student wishing to take a science course containing Mathematics 2 and 3, Physics and Chemistry cannot take History. Examination of the "grid" will show that other combinations cause difficulties for timetabling and thus restrict student choice. This "grid" can vary from year to year in response to subject demand. Some subjects which are examinable within the Leaving Certificate are not shown in the grid. This is due to lack of student demand and lack of teacher expertise.

TABLE 10.5

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS AND SCHOOL SIZE

School enrolment	Languages	Art/ music	Leisure	Useful activities	Total
1,301–1,400	2	4	7	14	27
1,201–1,300	2	4	6	13	25
600–800	1	3	1	9	14
Under 600....	1	3	1	9	14

Choice of options. As stated above parent dissatisfaction with subject availability could be due in some measure to the availability of optional subjects. Table 10.5 sets out by school size and subject areas the number of options offered in selected Government high schools.

As may be seen from this table, larger high schools are usually able to offer a wider range of optional subjects than smaller high schools. More particularly, the spread of options is greater in larger high schools with greater opportunities for languages and leisure subjects.

TEACHING METHODS

Present developments in educational theory and practice emphasize the fact that individuals differ significantly in their capabilities for learning and in the ways in which they learn. The central problem, therefore, in school organization is to promote the greatest possible measure of individual growth and learning in what is essentially a group setting. In referring to this problem, the N.E.A. project "Schools for the 60's" states (1963, p. 75) that "no scheme of school or curriculum organization washes away human variability or the manifold problems of dealing with it instructionally." Downey (1965, p. 24) in discussing assumptions underlying modern approaches to teaching and learning, states that worth-while learning takes place, not just in the traditional and formal teaching situations but in a wide variety of situations and as a consequence of a wide variety of teaching techniques. Broadly speaking, these situations and techniques fall into three categories:

(1) Learning through receiving knowledge from an "expert" or being taught directly by a teacher.

(2) Learning through sharing knowledge or discussing issues with colleagues.

(3) Learning through discovering knowledge—or pursuing individual inquiry.

An investigation of teaching procedures in Western Australian secondary schools indicates that the last two approaches are being adopted to a much greater degree than in the past and that considerable variety exists within secondary schools. Most schools now place an increasing emphasis on teaching/learning procedures which utilize a high degree of individual inquiry, which stress a greater degree of student participation and which de-emphasize the dominance of the teacher in the teaching/learning situation. The emphasis is, in effect, in the direction of making the student increasingly responsible for his own learning.

While this emphasis on variety of approach to teaching and learning would seem to have overall beneficial effects, there is a body of teacher opinion which states that teaching/learning procedures adopted in conjunction with the Achievement Certificate are such that certain students, particularly those in Basic level classes, cannot benefit fully or become fully involved because they lack the necessary skills and maturity with which to deal effectively with the course materials and methods adopted by the teachers.

Although teachers perceive some Basic level students to be unable to benefit fully from small group and individual learning procedures, these students in their questionnaire responses indicated a strong desire to have a greater number of periods in which they could pursue individual study. This would reinforce the suggestion made above that more formal instruction in the use of such procedures should be given to Basic level students. These procedures may include skills for managing, or participating in, small-group discussion, techniques of questioning, note taking, the development of summaries, the location of resource materials, and other such skills.

A criticism of instructional methods contained within the responses of the Administrator Questionnaire was that, because of the ready availability of structured text materials from the Education Department, many teachers placed an undue emphasis on teaching from a textbook. While the Committee is mindful of the valuable assistance that textbooks can be to both student and teacher, it is also aware that an over-reliance upon their use can lead to sterile teaching/learning situations, particularly with below-average ability students who generally respond more favourably to activity methods and variety in approach.

PERIOD ALLOCATION

When asked to state positive measures that could be adopted in the high school to reduce the incidence of indiscipline, several principals stated that the number of periods allocated to core subjects in the Basic level should be reduced. This opinion by administrators was widely supported by teachers who viewed Basic-level-student frustration with core courses as a factor contributing to a climate in which the probability of indiscipline was considerably increased.

Some support for this view was apparent from the preferences expressed by Basic level students for non-core subjects and from the evidence given by teachers on the interest of Basic level students in optional studies and especially in courses of a vocational nature.

The suggested period allocation for each of the core subjects at each level in First Year is six periods per week. In some cases where the school can offer worth-while alternative experiences such as work experience or farm training, the number of periods devoted to mathematics by Second Year Basic level students may be reduced to four periods. In Third Year, all core subjects may be reduced to four periods per week for Basic level students. In view of opinions expressed by teachers, administrators and students, it would seem that, for some Basic level students at the Second and Third Year levels, such a reduction would be advisable and the substitution of subjects from the optional areas, particularly those with a vocational bias, may be more in keeping with student interests and aspirations.

STUDENT GROUPINGS

Ability grouping

The grouping of students within schools is carried out for a variety of administrative and educational purposes. One of the more common approaches is the grouping of children on the basis of ability. This is referred to under a variety of headings, including such terms as homogeneous grouping, streaming or multi-level approaches. The rationale underlying ability grouping is that it narrows the ability range in a classroom (thereby facilitating the provision of more appropriate learning tasks), encourages the teacher to adjust his teaching to the level of the group, and allows the teacher more time to spend with students in a particular ability level.

In Western Australian high schools under the Achievement Certificate scheme, students have been grouped according to their ability in each of the core subjects. The majority of student time at school is spent in these groups. Under this scheme, the curriculum is differentiated in a manner "whereby courses of different levels of difficulty are provided for students according to ranges of ability".

At the inception of the Achievement Certificate, the multi-level approach was an innovation of considerable merit, since it eliminated the harmful and wasteful effects that could accrue from streaming students into groups on the basis of general ability for instruction in all or most subject areas.

The Dettman Report, after reviewing selected research evidence on its effects, stated (para. 126):

> The available evidence indicates that streaming serves little, if any, useful purpose and may be harmful. For this reason we believe the practice should be discontinued. The organizational procedures to be adopted in its stead should be such as to facilitate differentiation of instruction.

From the point of view of maintaining school discipline, ability grouping in the core subjects may have several decided disadvantages, particularly for the Basic level students.

Expectations of Students and Teachers

Teachers and administrators made frequent reference in their questionnaires and in interviews to the fact that the term "Basic" carried with it an undesirable "stigma" which tended to brand students as inferior. This stigma, they believed, had undesirable effects upon students' motivation to learn, upon their adjustment to the school situation and upon their academic performance. The effect of this stigma is felt through the teacher's expectation of how Basic level students ought to behave and the consequent modification of their behaviour to cope with the expectation. The perceptions of Basic level students about their own capability are similarly affected. Regarding the former aspect, Marburger (1963, p. 306) writes:

> The teacher who expects achievement, who has hope for the educability of his pupils, indeed conveys this through every nuance and

> subtlety of his behaviour. The teacher who conveys hopelessness for the educability of his children usually does so without ever really verbalizing such an attitude—at least not in front of his pupils.

Thus in spite of the best intentions it is very easy for a teacher to set lower standards of performance and behaviour for a group of students simply because of a "low ability" label with its various connotations.

From the students' point of view, there are pressures acting upon him to conform to group behaviour norms. These norms are in part determined by the group's perception of what is expected of them. The perceptions of teachers and their peers help mould these expectations. Table 10.6 indicates how students in Basic level in all four core subjects (compared with their Advanced level counterparts) perceive them.

TABLE 10.6

ADVANCED AND BASIC LEVEL STUDENT VIEWS OF TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

Most of the teachers think that I am:		Advanced	Basic
	N =	491	216
		%	%
A real troublemaker		3	15
A bit of a nuisance		8	25
An average student		42	37
A pretty good student		43	13

Forty per cent of the Basic group believe most of their teachers regard them as a nuisance or troublemaker. This perception is likely to act as a catalyst for misbehaviour in the classroom.

Subcultures of problem students

Whatever the courses, student indiscipline is found extensively among low achieving students grouped in Basic level classes. Concentrating together students with behaviour problems in these classes may not be in the best interest of schools. The recent report, *A Critical Appraisal of Comprehensive Education*, published by the National Foundation of Education Research in England and Wales, comments (p. 172) on the effects that streamed and unstreamed classes have on discipline. This study found that the practice restricted mixing between groups and that numerous already ill-behaved children, of either sex, tended to form delinquent subcultures. The case was quoted, however, of a school where unstreaming was introduced. In this case a delinquent sub-culture almost completely disappeared. The Report concludes that "there is some evidence that unstreaming can reduce the tendency for a delinquent sub-culture to arise in the school".

Although classes in Western Australian high schools are not grouped on general ability but rather on the more specific core subject abilities, the general principle of the N.F.E.R. finding is most likely valid in the local context. Efforts to spread low ability, poorly motivated students throughout classrooms within a year level may well succeed in breaking up cliques of problem students and at the same time provide acceptable student behaviour models for this group.

New grouping procedures in high schools

In 1973 a number of high schools in the Perth metropolitan area will vary their form of administrative organization under the Achievement Certificate. This has been done, in part, in recognition of the adverse effects that ability grouping has upon student performance and behaviour. In at least one high school, students entering the first year in 1973 will study in ungraded classes. All students will be required to take the four core subjects of English, mathematics, science and social studies for six periods per week, but will study them in heterogeneous ability groups. In addition they will be required to take the following in ungraded groups.

Art and crafts	2 periods
Drawing	2 periods
Health education/human relations	2 periods
Manual arts/home economics	4 periods
Physical education	3 periods
Religious education	1 period
Speech	1 period
Music	1 period

Special arrangements will be made within the above general structure for the teaching of foreign languages. Students, however, will be assessed in levels and grades according to performance. Similar experiments are being tried in another school but in this case only the subjects of English and social studies will be involved from the core subjects.

With a view to the possible effects that ability grouping may have on student behaviour, the Committee welcomes the above forms of administrative experimentation planned in these schools and suggests that the success or otherwise of these attempts should be carefully evaluated with respect to their effect upon discipline within the school.

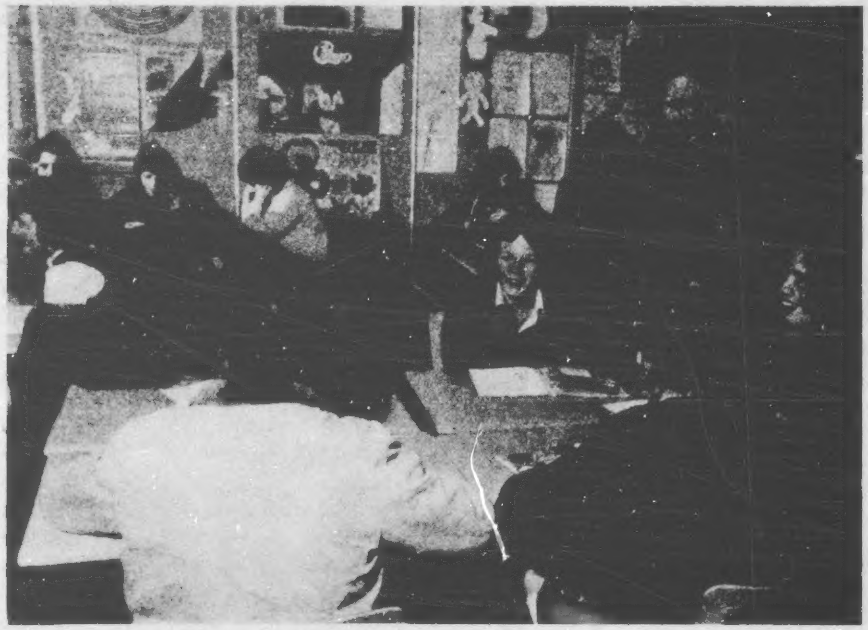
Workshops in human relations

The Dettman Report (1969) strongly emphasized the need for education of a social and moral nature within the school curriculum. In response to this emphasis, provision was made in the Achievement Certificate organization for the allocation of a period per week for "workshops in human relations". This term is a description given to a series of techniques used to motivate student discussion. Their stated aims are

(1) To create situations where students can become aware of their own feelings and beliefs and more sensitive to the beliefs and feelings of others.

(2) To enable students to become more aware of the society in which they live, their present and potential role, privileges and responsibilities.

(3) To enable students to increase their skill in inter-personal, family, school and social relationships.



The workshops programme was designed by a committee composed of representatives from the Public Health Department, Child Welfare Department, Mental Health Department, Health Education Council, University Psychology Department, Teachers' Colleges, superintendents, school administrators and teachers. Its topics involve adjustment to school, problems of growing up, family relationships, choosing an occupation and a wide variety of social issues. The purpose of the workshop programme is not to turn out students with standards or values identical with those of their teachers or the Education Department; rather, its goal is to help students learn how to develop their own standards while taking into consideration the prevalent attitudes of society and the likely consequences of various types of behaviour.

The Committee is of the opinion that this approach to human relations provides a very positive step in the development of a mature and responsible social outlook among students and a means of developing acceptable levels of student behaviour, both within and outside of the school situation. Its investigations and the evidence it has heard suggest, however, that these workshops may not in their present form have been fully successful in gaining student/teacher acceptance within the school and, as a consequence, have not had the impact upon student behaviour and attitudes that was intended.

The power of group discussion compared with the formal lecture in establishing group norms and effecting a change in attitude has been well established by researchers such as Lewin (1947) and Levine and Butler (1952). Public commitment by a class to adhere to a norm promoted in a Human Relations Workshop situation is likely to result in group members changing their attitudes as long as the group as a whole feels that it has not been coerced into adopting that position by the teacher.

The area of human relations was subject to considerable criticism by teachers in the section of the Teacher Questionnaire reserved for written comment. Some teachers viewed this area as one of very little student interest and a subject period in which discipline problems frequently arose. In their written views, many students also saw this as an area of little interest. The following perceptive comment from an Advanced level, Second Year student may indicate a reason for this lack of interest for at least one segment of students attending such classes.

> I also think subjects like current affairs and human relations are a complete waste of time because most students go to those periods and just look out the window or talk. If we wanted to know what is happening around the world, we watch the news we certainly don't come to school a week later to hear about it.

Reference to the percentage responses to the question, "Do you think that human relations is a valuable course of study?" contained in Table 10.7 indicates that, in First Year classes, students are more inclined to see value in the human relations workshop. By Third Year, however, there appears to be a strengthening of student opinion against the course with 53 per cent of students stating that they see no value in the course.

TABLE 10.7
STUDENT EVALUATION OF HUMAN RELATIONS WORKSHOPS

Response	Year 1 N = 1,407	Year 2 1,392	Year 3 1,298
	%	%	%
Valuable	61	49	44
Not valuable	28	47	53
Do not know	11	4	3

It is important to note that those students who are most frequently punished in schools tend to see human relations workshops as being of less value than do those who are punished less. Those students who show little ambition or desire to do well at school and those who find school boring also tend to see human relations workshops as being of less value than do other groups. It would appear that the groups who are most in need of these workshops are those who find them of least interest or value.

Probable reasons for ineffectiveness. While the course materials produced by the Curriculum Branch of the Education Department have enabled some schools to set up workshops in human relations programmes which function in a successful manner, it is apparent that other schools have encountered a range of difficulties in implementing the programme.

One possible reason may relate to the lack of prestige that these workshops enjoy. In the first place, this results in the needs of the course being met only after other established subjects have been catered for. Secondly, this lack of prestige may have led to a lack of adequate teacher preparation for the courses. Leadership of workshops, despite their relatively unstructured approach, is a difficult task which may involve the need for greater in-service training on the part of teachers.

Another suggested cause of the failure of workshops to generate teacher/student interest is lack of direction and incentive through the school as a result of a haphazard delegation of responsibility in this subject. There is also the fact that no avenue of promotion is offered to teachers who specialize within this field. This may act as a deterrent to the development of teacher skill and interest in the area. Closely related to this question is the fact that, in some cases, teachers selected for workshops have adopted an authoritarian approach which has rendered it difficult to establish the proper atmosphere for frank student discussion. Convenience in time-tabling is sometimes the main criterion used in the selection of teachers to conduct the workshops.

A final possible cause of ineffectiveness suggested by administrators was related to subject content and presentation. Often there occurs considerable overlapping of subject material presented in workshops with that presented in other subject areas. Sometimes the material presented is of a "safe" nature—that is, it avoids contentious issues that students expect from a course of this nature. There is a danger that, where relevant tapes, suitable films, records and filmstrips are not readily available, the substitution of printed materials may not sustain pupil interest through its lack of variety and intrinsic attraction.

Recent approaches to course improvement. The realization that workshops are not holding student interest has led to a variety of alternative procedures being adopted in schools.

One alternative involves the use of year masters and mistresses in the presentation of workshops with the provision that these "move up" with their year. This scheme involves giving a sufficient teaching load of human relations periods to a single teacher, for it was considered that the teacher who possesses qualities which lead to his/her selection as year master/mistress would also be the teacher best suited to undertake the work in human relations.

Another senior high school has adopted a scheme whereby a specialist teacher with training and practical experience in human relations workshops takes 14 First and Second Year workshops and one Third Year. With the co-operation of the Parents and Citizens' Association, the workshop programme has been extended to include an experiment in parent involvement. The objectives of this scheme are threefold:

(1) To overcome some of the obvious difficulties of the human relations workshop in the classroom situation, e.g. class sizes and the difficulty of maintaining group discussion.

(2) To help improve parent-student communication.

(3) To develop an awareness of the importance of mutual support and co-operation between parents and teachers in education.

Under this scheme, 35 parents have enrolled and have been attending weekly sessions in the evening. The human relations teacher attends all sessions and acts as organizer for the groups. This enables her to develop a personal relationship with parents, to discuss problems with them and to select those likely to be suitable for classroom leaders. In operation, the scheme provides for six mothers to come into the classroom as group leaders. They arrive a half hour before the beginning of the period and discuss materials to be used with the human relations teacher. At the beginning of the period, the teacher introduces the topic before the students move into groups of seven or eight. The mothers act as group leaders and students as group reporters. At the end of each session, students report on their group's findings and there is a general summing up by the teacher.

At a third high school all human relations workshop periods are taken in form groups by the physical education staff. This method gives each teacher four to five periods per week. It has been found that, because of the larger number of periods allocated to them, teachers place a greater emphasis on their subject and the workshops operate very much in the same manner as other subjects with regard to preparation. In some cases two classes are time-tabled at the same time and some experimenting has been attempted with a male and a female teacher taking either mixed or single sex groups, according to topics. A year master is in charge of the materials required for the programme, but the teacher in charge of physical education actually organizes the programme. The system is also carefully integrated with a tutorial system in which each year is divided into 12 groups of approximately 25 students and involves practically every staff member. Those groups meet once a week specifically for pastoral care.

An interesting supplement to the above scheme was a social issues programme conducted by the Health Education Council, which ran for eight weeks during a single term. Leaders for this project were supplied by a local Rotary Club, and the total programme was organized by the Parents and Citizens' Association. Each week between 80 and 100 people attended with an even ratio of parents and children. Mainly Second and Third Year students attended and interest remained at a high level throughout the course.

This process of preparing students for full membership in a community has been termed "social training" by Baier (1968). In teaching students to know and accept the restrictions insisted on by the community, the human relations workshops may provide a viable learning programme. As well, this type of human relations course has a useful role in promoting moral training through discussion of ideas such as public interest, natural rights or social justice. However, whether human relations can succeed as a vehicle for moral *education* is less clear, since a programme of moral education seeks not only to inculcate the morality of the community but also to foster moral excellence in the students. In other words, moral education as such is concerned with more than ensuring that the student knows what his community morally requires of him. Empirical evaluations of moral education programmes has led to conflicting assessments of their potential. The influential studies of Harthstone and May (1928) found that character education classes led to no significant changes in experimental tests of moral behaviour. In other words, slight changes in moral knowledge were not paralleled by changes in moral behaviour. However, more recent research (for example, Kohlberg, 1969) suggests a more promising outcome of the human relations type of programme. Maturity in moral thinking can be developed in students, particularly through peer discussion. These changes in maturity of moral judgement are likely to have long-range effects into early adulthood.

Summary. In the view of the Committee, programmes such as human relations workshops offer a promising means of developing within students a sense of social and moral responsibility and of providing within the school a rich and satisfying educational experience. Despite its excellent aims, however, it lacks a great deal of interest and support among both teachers and students, although examples quoted above show that with careful and competent leadership a rich programme with full student interest can be maintained. Important, too, is the degree to which carefully constructed courses can involve parents in a meaningful and interesting way.

Part of the failure of human relations to achieve its desired aims may be due to the fact that the subject offers limited promotional opportunities within the secondary service. To concentrate on human relations courses may mean that a teacher could forego promotional opportunities in specialist subject fields. The provision of promotional opportunities within this field could do much to enhance the status of this area of study in the eyes of parents, students and teachers. While promotional opportunities are needed within the field of human relations, it cannot be stressed too strongly that such promotion should not be made on the basis of academic qualifications. The Committee believes that such an appointment should be made on the basis of personal qualities and on the ability to relate in a sympathetic and understanding way with the full range of students in the secondary school.

Recommendations

The fullest measure of support should be given to the development of new teaching strategies for the conduct of human relations workshops within secondary schools.

The Education Department should consider the establishment of a promotional position with responsibility in the area of student welfare.

The practice of involving parents and citizens in human relations workshops in the capacity of discussion leaders should be encouraged and extended where possible.

Non-core subjects

There is some evidence from teachers and administrators that in the optional subject areas and, in particular, the single period subjects, acts of indiscipline are highly likely to occur. When it is considered that these subjects are generally offered on an elective basis and are not organized in levels, this opinion would appear to be most unexpected.

Interviews with central office personnel, with school administrators and with selected teachers offer some explanations for the reported incidence of behaviour problems in optional areas. One suggested reason is that often teachers who teach elective subjects have no particular expertise in the area. The allocation of teaching responsibilities in optional areas is often made as a result of time-tabling necessities, for teachers may be required to take elective subjects merely to "fill out" their requirements of teaching periods.

To some teachers, the teaching of optional subjects is seen as an inferior assignment. Within schools an informal hierarchy places Advanced levels before lower levels, core subjects before required or optional subjects and upper school teaching before lower school. It is for this reason that some teachers have negative attitudes towards subjects which they consider to be "of lower status". While the demands of the Achievement Certificate for core subjects and the Leaving Certificate requirements operate upon the secondary system, it is probable that this attitude will persist among teachers.

A criticism of single period subjects made by some teachers was that a lack of continuity in subject presentation arose because of infrequent period allocation. The opinion was expressed that a single period of 40 minutes once a week, when time had been taken out for student organization and material preparation and storage, offered little opportunity for detailed development and coverage of major topics. As a consequence students tended to lose interest because little could be achieved within the period allocated. Some teachers suggested that, administratively, it would be preferable to programme single period subjects over a shorter portion of the year with greater period allocation each week. They expressed the opinion that a series of "mini" courses extending over shorter periods would be preferable to extending one subject over a longer period. In this way student interest could be maintained and a more detailed topic treatment could be attempted.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Introduction

The provision of extra-curricular activities is a recognition by educators that the school programme is much broader than formal study alone and that learning takes place in a wide variety of situations and in response to a large number of activities that are not part of the formal curriculum of the school.

While the curriculum of a school in its broadest sense includes all the learning experiences that a school provides for its students there are certain activities which, because of their unique characteristics, are usually distinguished from the normal programme of the school. Often these activities have been questioned in regard to their educational validity and some would doubt their place in the school programme. Their inclusion in the educational programme, however, has been supported in numerous reports on education. The Hope Report on Education in Ontario (1950), for instance, saw extra curricular activities as an integral part of any school programme and offered the following two recommendations:

(1) That the term "co-curricular" be applied to those activities of the school programme which are ancillary to the prescribed provincial curriculum, and which heretofore have been termed extra curricular.

(2) That in the interests of the all-round development of students, local education authorities be encouraged to provide adequate programmes of co-curricular activities and supervision of such programmes by members of their teaching staff.

The attitude towards extra-curricular activities expressed in their report would seem to be very much in keeping with the tenets of a general education as adopted in this State.

Extra-curricular programmes, while they often grow out of the needs, interests and persistence of the students themselves, are a recognition on the part of educators of developments in psychological theory that emphasize individual differences, motivation, transfer in learning and the interests of younger people. Melsness states:

> Extra curricular activities are more adaptable to individual differences than are most formal courses, they provide motivation and recognition of students which are not possible in their regular studies, and extra curricular activities are given credit for keeping students in school who might otherwise have dropped out. (1964 Alberta, Principals' Leadership Course.)

The functions of extra-curricular activities

Considering the broad framework of a general education and the wide range of interests and abilities exhibited in the secondary school, extra-curricular activities have a variety of functions in the school situation. The literature of education abounds in statements of their objectives, values and functions. The Committee has examined many of these and considers that the following statement by Reeves, Melsness and Cheal adequately fits the Western Australian situation:

(1) They help to create and develop new interests on the part of students.
(2) They provide additional motivation for the regular classroom studies.
(3) They provide students with experiences in leadership and in group activities.
(4) They help students to develop special skills and abilities.
(5) They provide opportunities for self expression that may not be possible in regular classes.
(6) They train students in better use of leisure time.
(7) They provide students with valuable experiences in social living.
(8) They give opportunities for the enrichment of the regular curriculum.
(9) They may be a factor in developing good school morale.
(10) They encourage better understanding of the students by the teachers, through working in a situation less formal than the classroom.
(11) They provide the student with opportunities for vocational exploration in areas of special interest.

Considering the fears expressed by many teachers and administrators regarding the "impersonality" of the secondary school, the provision of a wide range of extra-curricular activities would seem to be one means of providing for a greater measure of student interest and of catering for individual needs. For the lower ability groups, they offer opportunities for satisfaction and achievement that may not be apparent in the more formal aspects of their schooling.

Evidence concerning extra-curricular activities

Evidence gained from a variety of sources indicates that there is a very active programme of extra-curricular activities being carried out in most Western Australian high schools. These extra-curricular activities are somewhat unique in the school situation in as much as they lie outside of the formal requirements of a teacher's duties. In almost all cases, their supervision is voluntary and arises out of teacher interest and enthusiasm.

While specific attention was not directed towards an evaluation of extra-curricular activities in high schools in this State, in the Teacher Questionnaire, teachers were asked to state whether or not they participated in any extra-curricular activities such as coaching, running clubs, etc. Thirty-seven per cent of teachers indicated that they did participate. Members of this group of teachers were much less likely to consider discipline a problem when they taught. Furthermore, positive responses to this item were better able to discriminate among school staffs perceiving discipline to be a problem than were any other characteristics of staff and schools solicited in the Teacher Questionnaire. These included age, sex, parental status, country of birth, teaching experience and teacher training characteristics of staff and size and location of the school. In the school with the largest proportion of teachers perceiving discipline to be a problem, 17.6 per cent of the staff participated in some form of extra-curricular activity while the corresponding percentage for the school with a staff least perceiving discipline to be a problem was 64.3 per cent.

In the Parent Questionnaire, parents were asked to indicate whether or not they thought that schools should provide more extra-curricular activities. The results indicated that slightly over half the parents (57 per cent) were in favour of an increase. Thirty-seven per cent stated that they did not favour extension.

Summary. From the evidence gained from the literature on the subject, from opinion expressed in submissions and from the Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires, it would appear that a wide range of educational and social benefits may be obtained from a well-planned and carefully operated programme of extra curricular activities in the secondary school.

Evidence from questionnaires would also suggest that those teachers who participate in extra-curricular activities have few disciplinary problems when they teach. While it would be somewhat hazardous to generalize from this limited evidence, it may be reasonable to assume that students view with respect the teacher who demonstrates that he has a strong interest not only in the student's formal programme but also in those aspects of his development that may be more social and recreational in nature.

The Committee believes that a well-planned programme of extra curricular activities may have strong value for the student who is not achieving well in formal subjects, for it provides satisfactions and achievements in the school situation that might otherwise be lacking. It provides, too, a forum in which students and teachers may meet in a less formal and structured relationship than the classroom and in which the maintenance of pre-determined levels of performance is not a pre-condition for "belonging" in the programme of the school.

The Committee sees the development of an extra-curricular programme as a positive means of contributing towards the development of a school climate conducive to the maintenance of desirable student-teacher relationships and one in which both teachers and students may find greater satisfaction. It strongly urges that formal recognition be given to the development of such programmes in high schools and that principals and teachers be encouraged to foster their development.

Recommendations

Every encouragement should be given at both a Departmental and a school level for the continued development of a well-planned and effectively operated programme of extra-curricular activities.

School councils composed of parents, teachers and students should be encouraged to take responsibility in the planning, operation and revision of extra-curricular activities for their schools.

Parent participation in school councils should be made only through their Parents and Citizens' Associations.

CHAPTER 11

THE SCHOOL STAFF

Within secondary schools in Western Australia, two forces which are leading towards the development of a climate that differs significantly from that experienced in pre-World War II days are the increasing professionalization of teachers and the requirement, directed in large part by Education Department policy, that secondary principals should exercise a strong degree of instructional leadership and autonomy in decision-making within their schools. The continuing development of each of these forces will have a strong influence on patterns of teacher and student behaviour within the school and upon the development of harmonious and satisfying relationships among teachers, administrators and students.

THE PRINCIPAL

The principal and leadership

The belief that a principal should exercise a strong leadership role in the school has received strong support in educational literature in recent years. This belief has been most evident in Canada and the United States of America, where considerable research has been carried out into educational leadership, notably using the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire. There appears to be a positive relationship between, on the one hand, the quality of leadership behaviour exhibited by the principal and, on the other, student growth and teacher flexibility, performance and satisfaction. The North American attitude is best summed up by Downey (1961) who, in speaking of the secondary school principal, states:

> A new image of the principalship is emerging—an image that places the principal in a relationship to the school as a whole, as the superintendent is to the district, or as the teacher is to the classroom. Today, the principal is expected to be educational leader of his school. He is expected to assume authority over and responsibility for every activity in which his school engages.

While the leadership role of the principal is stressed, it is the quality of leadership that assumes most importance. The change that is considered desirable is from an autocratic manager who views teachers more as employees, to an educational statesman who encourages teacher-student participation in decision-making and policy-making, who is the instructional leader within the school and who is viewed more as the leader of a group of co-operating professional teachers. In this view, his role changes from that of manager to that of facilitator of the educational process. Such a person needs a great measure of skill in the human, technical, managerial and speculative-creative aspects of teaching and learning.

Definition of the role of principal in Western Australia

While the Education Regulations specify certain administrative duties and responsibilities for the position of principal in Western Australia, no clear-cut published statement of his role is available to demonstrate clearly the official expectations held for his position. Rather, the role assumed by principals is a product of tradition and of the particular policies adopted by the Director of Secondary Education and made known through the advisory visits of superintendents, through conference and in-service activities and through various written and oral communications between the Education Department and the school. In recent years, the use of principals' conferences has been of great importance in this regard.

From the evidence gained from various questionnaires and from that given to the Committee by Departmental personnel, it would appear that the role expected by the Education Department is evolving to one that closely approximates that described above for the North American situation. Increasingly, the principal is being encouraged to become the instructional leader within his school and to adopt greater autonomy in decision-making with regard to matters involving instructional processes.

Promotional procedures in the Secondary Division

Promotion to the position of principal within the Secondary Division must be made through the steps of senior master and deputy principal. For appointment to the position of senior master (or senior mistress), selection is made on the basis of academic qualifications, length of service and quality of teaching experience. For selection to this first promotional position, teaching in the upper school is taken as an indication of teaching competence and has been given weighting above other teaching experience, both in Departmental appointments and in Tribunal decisions.

Appointment to the position of deputy principal (and principal mistress) is made in accordance with length of status as senior master, together with qualifications, seniority and experience. By far the greatest emphasis, however, is given to length of status as a senior master. Recommendations for appointment to the position of senior master/mistress, deputy principal and principal mistress are subject to appeal to the State Government School Teachers' Tribunal, which decides appeals on the basis of efficiency and seniority.

Appointment to the position of principal of a secondary school is made from a promotion list composed of the names of eligible deputy principals and principal mistresses. Eligibility for placement on this promotion list requires possession of a Teachers' Higher Certificate, together with a university degree or an associateship of the Perth Technical College or its equivalent. In addition to these qualifications, appointees to the position of principal are required to have satisfactorily served one of the following periods of service:

(1) Five years as a deputy principal of a secondary school, of which at least two were spent in a school of over 600 students.

(2) Two years as the headmaster of a Class I junior high school, except that a teacher who, after such service, is appointed as headmaster of a Class I or Class IA primary school is not eligible to apply.

(3) Two years as a senior lecturer in a teachers' college, together with ten years' teaching experience at either or both the primary and secondary level.

(4) Service as a deputy principal, secondary school, and as headmaster, junior high school Class I, for periods totalling five years.

The adoption of a promotion list for the appointment of principals in the Secondary Division is a recent change to the promotional structure and resembles in many respects the system of promotion from lists that has operated for many years in the Primary Division. One very important distinction must be observed between procedures in the two divisions, however, and that is in the use of "special", or accelerated, promotion for those teachers who demonstrate a high degree of efficiency.

Under Regulation 99 of the Education Regulations, the Education Department is required to fill every third vacancy that occurs in a primary school by the appointment of a teacher selected by the Primary Promotions' Board, irrespective of the position of his name on the promotion list. In selecting persons for this "special" promotion, the Board has regard to special qualifications, aptitude and experience for the discharge of the duties of the position to be filled and of the teachers' willingness to accept an appointment in any part of the State. In recent amendments made to the Education Regulations dealing with the Principals' Promotion List, however, no provision is made for accelerated promotion for those teachers on the Principals' Promotion List who demonstrate outstanding administrative leadership potential.

No formal administrative training (beyond a very short conference of several days) is provided for teachers who may reasonably expect to be promoted to a promotional position in the Secondary Division, nor are any formal qualifications in administration required. Appointment to the position of senior master, for instance, is made on the basis of the possession of academic qualifications. Promotion to the position of deputy principal and principal, because of the almost exclusive emphasis given to length of time in the immediately preceding status position, is virtually made on the basis of promotional seniority, following appointment to the position of senior master. It would be most unusual for the Teachers' Tribunal to give precedence in matters of appeal to any aspect of efficiency over length of status in the matter of appointment of deputy principals, and the requirements for placement on the Principals' Promotion List refers only to length of service in certain status positions.

With the increased size and complexity of the comprehensive secondary school and in view of a Departmental policy which is aimed at the development of a greater degree of autonomy and instructional leadership within the school, the Committee considers that teachers who demonstrate excellence in administrative and instructional leadership and a degree of efficiency that exceeds that displayed by other teachers should be given accelerated promotion. With the apparent link between the quality of leadership available in a school and the satisfaction, morale and performance of teachers and students, it would seem highly desirable that those who demonstrate potential in leadership should be given an earlier opportunity for its exercise.

Recommendations

The Education Department, in consultation with the Teachers' Union, should consider the application of the principle of "special" or accelerated promotion for the Principals' Promotion List and other promotional positions within the Secondary Division.

Training in educational administration

The complexity of the modern comprehensive secondary school in Western Australia and the increasing social, recreational and educational demands being placed upon it stress the need for a high degree of professional, administrative and business leadership by the principal. While it is not suggested that he should demonstrate expertise in every aspect of these areas, he should be reasonably aware of their dimensions and be able to demonstrate some facility with their essential components.

While on-the-job experience can provide much of the required knowledge and skills of leadership, the knowledge and skills gained in this way may tend to be limited both in content and outlook. The practising educational administrator should always be interested in improving the level of his performance and extending his knowledge, skills and competencies. Often his intellectual curiosity will lead him to raise difficult and searching questions which cannot always be answered in terms of his own experiences. He may also need a deeper appreciation of the past so that it can confer a greater understanding on the present; and he will need the skills whereby he can discern trends and predict with some assurance future events and future courses of action. Perhaps even the most elementary administrator may have a simple set of principles which will allow him to do these things, but the more successful he becomes the greater is the probability that he will find these principles inadequate. Should he not make this realization, he may well operate at a level below his potential capabilities. It becomes apparent that, for the administrator as he ascends to positions of greater administrative responsibility and complexity, an organized body of knowledge about administration that will serve to guide his decisions and actions as he faces daily administrative problems becomes more necessary.

The preparation of educational administrators in the secondary school should thus include both experience in a wide variety of situations and levels of responsibility and a sound knowledge of administrative theory and practice. Without either of these their preparation may be inadequate to equip them for the responsibility of directing the day-to-day operation of a large secondary school and of achieving the maximum in the professional growth and morale of teachers, the educational achievements of the students and the structuring of satisfying and harmonious teacher-student relationships.

At the present time, few principals in Western Australian secondary schools have had any formal training in educational administration. Figure 11.1, *Amount of Formal Training in Educational Administration Held by Principals,* indicates the numbers of principals who have had any formal training.

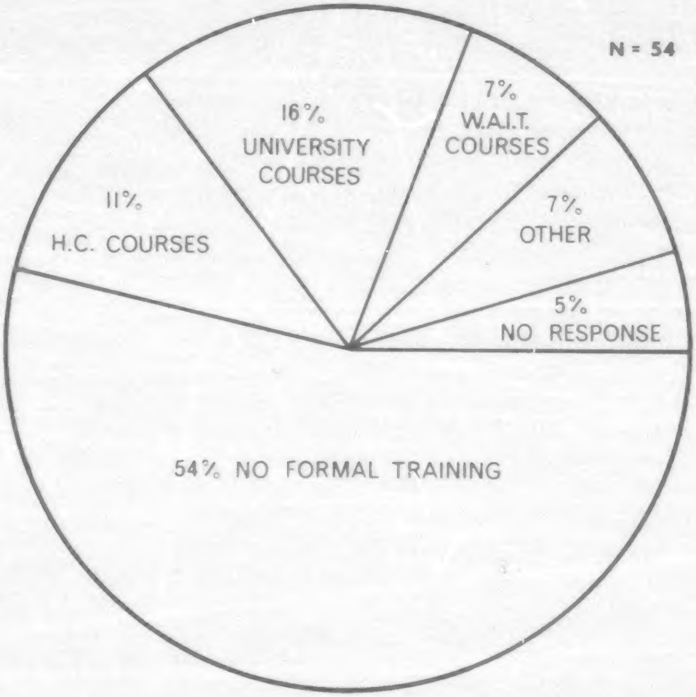


FIGURE 11.1. AMOUNT OF FORMAL TRAINING IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION HELD BY PRINCIPALS.

The responses in this figure indicate that few principals have had any degree of formal training in educational administration. This is not to infer that those principals without formal training are lacking in administrative ability, but it may be that, with formal training in the earlier years of their courses, they may have more easily resolved the administrative problems with which they were confronted and may have demonstrated a higher level of administrative and instructional leadership than otherwise.

The Committee is aware that competent leadership within the secondary school is essential if a greater measure of educational outputs and satisfactions is to be achieved. It sees, in competent and enlightened leadership at all levels within the school (but particularly at the level of principal), a factor that is likely to enhance the attainment of satisfactory levels of discipline within the secondary school. It favours a requirement that those seeking promotional positions within the Secondary Division should have had some form of formal training in educational administration.

Recommendation

The Education Department should give opportunities to those teachers seeking promotion within the Secondary Division who have formal training in educational administration.

The average school principal

Data obtained from questionnaires sent to all secondary school principals in Western Australia allow a profile to be drawn of the "average high school principal" in this State. This is not to say, of course, that the average principal exists, but a description of this hypothetical person does provide some background for an understanding of the Western Australian secondary school system.

The average Western Australian secondary school principal is 52 years of age, he has held this status for seven years and has been in charge of at least two schools. He possesses a bachelor's degree or an associateship and has had little, if any, formal training in the field of educational administration. His selection for the position of principal has, in fact, been based upon his academic qualifications, his performance as a classroom teacher and his length of service. He possesses membership of several professional educational organizations and has now reached a stage in his career where, because of administrative responsibilities, he no longer teaches in the classroom.

This average principal is in favour of student government in the high school and, in addition to its educational value, sees it as having a strong influence upon the student body, particularly in the upper school. This belief in the principle of student government makes him reluctant to veto any decisions that the student council may make. He holds frequent staff meetings in his school and encourages staff meetings at various levels within his school.

While he feels that he knows all of his staff, he does not know many of his students well—in fact, he would most probably know only 15 per cent of them.

Because of his administrative duties and because of the availability of other senior supervisory staff in the school, he rarely supervises teachers while they teach. He does not consider that the incidence of seriously disruptive behaviour in schools is increasing, but he is strongly concerned over those that do occur because of the extremely disruptive effects that they have upon teaching and learning and because of their adverse effects upon teacher and student morale. He tends to find dealing with seriously disruptive girls more of a problem than boys.

THE TEACHER

Everything depends on the teacher

There is perhaps no more important person in the educational system than the classroom teacher, for in the final analysis all of the educational administration, all of the curriculum planning, all of the facilities and services provided and all of the aims and objectives formulated will be of little use unless they can be translated into effective learning action by the teacher in his daily face-to-face contact with the student. More important, the type of person he is, the competencies he possesses, the knowledge he has accumulated and the skills he has mastered will all contribute, whether consciously or unconsciously, to the development of attitudes, values and behaviours within the students. The importance of this aspect was highlighted in the Plowden Report, which, in describing the role of the teacher, states (pp. 311-312):

> It has long been characteristic of the English education system that the teacher has been expected to carry the burden of teaching by example as well as by precept. He is expected to be a good man and to influence children more by what he is than by what he knows or by his methods. "First he wrought and afterwards he taught" is particularly relevant to the teacher of young children and extends to every facet of education. Teachers cannot escape the knowledge that children will catch values and attitudes far more from what teachers do than what they say.

The crucial importance of teacher quality to the effective implementation of any educational programme and to the quality of human relationships at all levels within the school has been stressed in various reports. In the Report of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives in Education in the Schools of Ontario, it was stated:

> . . . for the learner, the member of the educational team who is closest to him, who understands and provides for his interests and needs, and who guides him through inquiry to discovery, is clearly the most important agent in the educational process. A child's best guarantee of a good education is an inspiring teacher, a vigorous, informed, friendly person who likes children, who is able to establish a cheerful, socially permissive climate for learning, and who maintains creative and democratic relationships.

The Dettman Report supports this view and states (p. 111):

> . . . the teacher is undoubtedly the most important learning resource

> which can be made available to students. Not only does the teacher supply information but also he is responsive to the needs of students and adaptable to changing circumstances. There is no technological substitute for the human relationship between teacher and student. In the long run the quality of education will depend on the quality of the teachers in the schools . . (p. 111).

These and other reports from a variety of countries stress the fact that the teacher is the key to the educational process and whether or not students find schooling an interesting process will depend in large degree upon his skill in the motivation of learning, in the selection of meaningful experiences and in the structuring of interesting and worthwhile teaching/learning situations.

The Committee has examined evidence from a wide range of sources and strongly supports the view that the teacher's skilful application of his role and the quality of the attitudes and values that he brings to bear on the teaching/learning situation are potent factors in developing a climate within the school that engenders a high degree of student satisfaction and morale and high levels of student discipline.

Characteristics of the secondary teaching service

Responses to the Teacher Questionnaire revealed that 56 per cent of secondary teachers were male and 43 per cent female and of the total 47 per cent were parents. A significant number (24 per cent) of the teachers were not of Australian birth. Nine per cent had resided in Australia for less than five years. Seventy-six per cent of teachers were of Australian birth, 12 per cent came from the United Kingdom, and 12 per cent were of other nationalities.

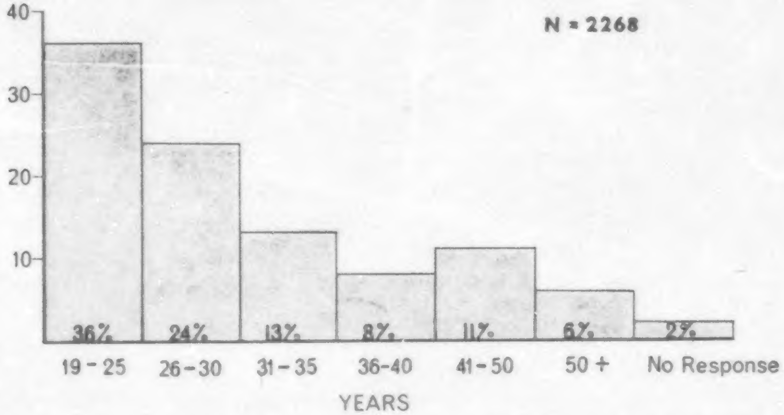


FIGURE 11.2 PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS IN VARIOUS AGE GROUPS.

Figure 11.2 sets out the percentage of teachers contained within various age groups within the secondary teaching service.

Almost three-quarters of the Western Australian teaching force are below 35 years and only 6 per cent are over 50 years. It may be said that it is a young teaching force and this reflects in some ways the enormous expansion that has taken place in the post-World War II years in this State. The rather young character of the teaching force is further demonstrated by the distribution of length of teaching experience of teachers within the service. Table 11.1 sets out percentages of teachers by length of experience.

TABLE 11.1

DISTRIBUTION OF SECONDARY TEACHERS BY LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE

Length of experience	%
Less than 1 year	10
1 to 2 years	17
3 to 4 years	18
4 to 6 years	12
7 to 10 years	15
More than 10 years	25
No response	3

These figures show that 45 per cent of the teachers in secondary schools have had less than four years' teaching experience and only 25 per cent have had ten or more years.

Changes that have occurred in the quality of teacher education since World War II are reflected in the fact that almost three-quarters of the secondary teaching force have had specific secondary training. The remaining 25 per cent are primary trained. Of the secondary teachers, 35 per cent possess degrees and diplomas and 10 per cent associateships and diplomas. Comparison of these figures with those of the pre-World War II period supports the view expressed earlier in the Report regarding the increasing professionalization of the teaching force in this State.

Influence of teacher behaviour on discipline

An examination of responses contained in the section of the Administrator Questionnaire reserved for written comment supports the view that in some cases indiscipline is a result of poorly prepared teaching or is due to the inability of some teachers to exercise even a moderate degree of control over the behaviour of a group of students. In a very few cases, administrators expressed the view that poor example given by some teachers directly contributes to indiscipline within the school.

The following are examples of responses given in questionnaires concerning teacher causes of indiscipline:

> When teachers are incompetent it is a high cause of trouble but not very many are so.
>
> Most of our problems with behaviour involve weak teachers—some of these are so-called experienced teachers . . .
>
> Many indiscipline problems stem from teacher weakness . . . the less experienced, less mature teacher tends to have the greater problem with discipline.
>
> Teachers often create or increase their own problems by confronting a student in such a manner that the child has only two alternatives—aggressive behaviour or submissive acquiescence.
>
> Some teachers are inadequate and unprofessional. Some even lack common courtesies and generally set a bad example for students with their manners and attitudes.
>
> Problem teachers are those whose personality or approach to the job is their problem. These are incurable and should not be employed, once they have had sufficient time—say, two years—in which to show their ability.
>
> Much disturbance results from foolish comments, by young teachers' caustic comments, flippancy, causing students to react in like terms.

The above comments from administrators are supported by the rankings which they gave to a list of 40 factors considered to be potential causes of indiscipline in the school. Table 11.2 sets out those factors relating to teacher performance and the rankings given by administrators to these.

TABLE 11.2

ADMINISTRATOR RANKINGS OF POTENTIAL CAUSES OF INDISCIPLINE RELATING TO TEACHERS

Factor	Ranking
Students today are more aware of the limitations of a teacher's authority	2
Lack of teaching experience	12
Deficiencies in teacher training	13
Cultural and ethnic differences between non-Australian teachers and students (e.g., teacher has poor command of English)	17
Some teachers show poor attitude towards students in basic classes	20
The values held by children differ markedly from those held by staff members of school (e.g., lower class v. middle class)	22
Teaching methods are unsuitable, monotonous, etc., and often not suited to subject needs of children, etc.	23
Instability of staff and rapid staff turnover	25
There are insufficient subject specialists and teachers must teach outside the area of their competence	37
There are too many female or male students (i.e., there is an imbalance)	39

While administrators rank very highly the statement that "students today are more aware of the limitations of a teacher's authority" and view this as a very potent cause of indiscipline, they also rank highly factors associated with the teaching process or factors which bear directly upon the performance of teachers in the classroom. The factors, "Lack of teaching experience" and "Deficiencies in teacher training" which are ranked highly in positions 12 and 13, respectively, confirm the opinions expressed in written sections of the questionnaire concerning problems faced by beginning teachers. In particular they confirm a belief expressed frequently in the Administrator Questionnaire that teachers-in-training receive inadequate instruction in classroom techniques of management and control and insufficient autonomous teaching practice in schools.

Inspection of the other factors within the table, together with consideration of the opinions expressed in written sections, indicates that the following areas are those which are more closely related to matters of discipline.

(1) Poor lesson preparation and presentation.
(2) Inadequate teacher preparation.
(3) Inadequate teacher induction procedures.
(4) Unprofessional, irresponsible or immature conduct by teachers.

Lesson preparation and presentation. Frequent reference was made by teachers and administrators to the poor quality of performance in the classroom of a limited number of teachers. While it would appear that these were mainly younger teachers, there is also evidence to suggest that incompetence is not restricted to any age group.

In some cases lessons are inadequately prepared, presentation lacks any variety of interest, and motivation, in a positive sense, is lacking. It is not difficult to understand why a student, who, with other teachers may exhibit behaviour of a high standard, will resort to acts of indiscipline in such circumstances. Confronted with incompetent teaching, such reactions are to be expected as a result of the students sheer boredom or frustration.

Evidence from the Student Questionnaire supports administrator and teacher opinion regarding lesson preparation and presentation. Over half the students responding to questions concerning these matters indicated that the work that they do in class is much the same from day to day, and an analysis of this response in terms of Basic and Advanced classes indicates that this opinion is more firmly held among Basic classes. It is also much stronger in upper school than in lower school classes. A similar response was obtained to the statement, "For most lessons students are given lists of examples to do out of their textbooks" and here again Basic classes tended to see this as being more pertinent to their situation than did other groups. The above evidence does tend to lend some support to a need for variety and interest in teaching approaches.

Students' perceptions

Some understanding of the frustrations felt by students as a result of inadequate teaching may be gained from the opinions of students themselves. The following extracts of student opinion illustrate at least some of the uncertainties and tensions felt in the school situation. The first two extracts from Third Year Advanced students reveal the need for variety and individualized teaching and support the view expressed above that inadequate teaching is confined to a relatively small number of teachers.

> I think most teachers are alright in their teaching methods, however, some tend to make the lesson boring. What they are teaching us could be made interesting but instead of experimenting with new and possibly more interesting and effective methods, some tend to just drone to us for forty minutes and expect us to understand. More than likely their monotonous tone of voice puts us to sleep. I am not saying that all teachers are a bore but there is the minority.
>
> Third Year Girl—Advanced.
>
> The standard of a teacher's education could be improved but it is quite good except for the occasional one or two, who just tell you to come in, sit down, and get on with your work without any guidance whatsoever when you need it.
>
> Third Year Boy—Advanced.

The following extracts are taken from Basic level students and provide a strong contrast to those of the Advanced level students. The first illustrates reaction to a monotonous lesson preparation and gives some insight into the misbehaviour of some students in class. The second reflects what may be adverse teacher attitudes towards Basic students and also suggests that given adequate motivation and attention some basic students can achieve pride and satisfaction in the mastery of academic learnings.

> Most of the boys brag about want fun they have in their subject and it get you down a bit. A you wish you were in the same class with them. They say want the teacher does and then you think about your teacher and it relly borring in the class. Some time you get up set and dont take any nosts of your teacher and you get into trouble. It not to bad in some class the teacher is not the best always going crasy at you. In some class you get no one to talk to and its relly borring. But most of my teacher are O.K. But in the others class the teacher are quit good. And some are not to bad.
>
> Third Year Boy—Basic.
>
> . . . in English we dont have much to do because I am basic and is regarded as a slow "but" if we had some work to do some pleasant things to do I think we could do better an achive greater things like spelling and reading which I am very bad at. . . .
>
> Third Year Boy—Basic.

It is difficult to assess the degree to which teacher factors are responsible for, and contribute towards, a deterioration in standards of discipline.

Pre-service education of teachers

In the above section dealing with the influence of teacher behaviour on discipline, reference was made to the fact that principals considered that weaknesses exhibited by some young teachers in their early years of teaching were contributing to a deterioration of discipline in their schols. In rankings of potential causes of indiscipline, principals also emphasized that lack of teaching experience and deficiencies in teacher training were matters of concern in this regard. Some principals attributed early teaching difficulties to deficiencies within the teacher education system itself and expressed the opinion that trainee teachers were not receiving adequate development of technical-professional skills that would allow them to function effectively in a continuous way within a secondary school. Typical of criticisms made by administrators regarding selection of teacher trainees and their methods of preparation were the following:

> Most of our problems with behaviour involve weak teachers—some of these are so-called experienced teachers. The Department should re-assess the ways by which teacher-trainees are screened and trained in the matter of maintaining discipline in the classroom.
>
> Inadequacies (exist) in our teacher training, where I would suggest too much emphasis is placed on content material and too little on understanding the child. This leads to the teacher concentrating his or her efforts to get the subject material across rather than "educating" the student.
>
> Teacher training courses need to be changed with a greater emphasis on psychology and effective teaching methods.
>
> More practice teaching seems vital in overcoming this problem. A two or three week practice is almost useless from the discipline point of view—trainee teachers leave just as the problems are appearing. A sustained session of teaching practice seems . . . to be a necessity if ex-college teachers are to function adequately.

These and other comments contained within the Administrator Questionnaire indicate that some principals are of the opinion that the present length of practice teaching provided in training courses is inadequate and that insufficient attention is being given to skills of lesson presentation and control technique. These inadequacies are perceived as being an important factor contributing to low standards of disciplinary control among teachers in their first years of teaching.

The value of teaching practice within the course of preparation set down for trainee teachers is widely acknowledged in reports and in the literature dealing with teacher education. The recent James Report on Teacher Education in England, for instance, has once more stressed its importance, and it states that "teaching practice . . . is a highly valued part of professional training" (Burgess, 1971, p. 49). The particular value this Report sees for this aspect of training may be seen in the objectives set down for practical experience in the first year of the second cycle (Burgess, p. 25):

(1) It should provide a basis for the illustration and reinforcement of theoretical studies.

(2) It should familiarize the student with the teaching situation.

(3) It should satisfy regional bodies of a student's suitability to undertake the next stage of training.

These objectives would appear to be very closely allied to those that guide the development of practice teaching in Western Australia. The Calendar of the Western Australian Secondary Teachers' College, for instance, states:

> Practical experience in the classroom is considered one of the most important aspects of teacher preparation. Method courses and demonstrations prepare students for particular practice requirements and throughout the training period a progressive refinement of teaching skill and class management is expected. Evidence of a professional attitude is a further expectation of training which should find expression in practice teaching. Students should endeavour to apply learning acquired in other training areas to the teaching/learning situation in the classroom.

Trainees at the Secondary College generally receive six weeks' teaching practice each year.

The Committee in considering this aspect of teacher education would support the opinion expressed by teachers and administrators regarding the importance of adequate teaching practice in the pre-service education period. It does, however, appreciate the efforts now being made in this direction by the teachers' colleges and the difficulties associated with fitting extra teaching practice into an already crowded training schedule.

Another consideration that may be worthy of note is the comparatively short period between secondary education and appointment to a first teaching position in a secondary school and the lack of experience outside of teaching that this entails. This whole question of teacher education is, however, too wide a field to consider within the context of the present enquiry, and evidence gained by the Committee, while it points to areas within teacher education that have a bearing upon discipline in schools, is insufficient upon which to base firm recommendations. The Committee does consider, however, that the area of teaching practice is one which should receive closer scrutiny. This may involve questions of length of practice, its placement or distribution within the training period or even questions of the use of internship.

Recommendation

The Education Department should set up a committee to examine and suggest modifications to practices with regard to practical teaching experience within the pre-service education period for teachers.

Teachers recruited from overseas. An analysis of those teachers who indicated that they found discipline "very much of a problem when they teach" indicates that those born outside of Australia and who have been resident in Australia for less than five years are among those who are more likely to have problems with discipline. Further analysis, strongly supported by school administrator and central office administrator opinion, indicates that teachers who are born in, or who receive their teacher education in, South-east Asian countries are more likely to experience disciplinary problems when teaching in the Western Australian context than do Australian teachers or teachers recruited from the United Kingdom or Europe. The difficulties experienced by these teachers appear to be related to language and cultural factors.

The Committee, while realizing that many South-east Asian teachers experience considerable difficulty with discipline in secondary schools, is also aware of instances where such teachers have been an outstanding success and have contributed greatly to the effective operation of the school. It would be loath, therefore, to recommend with regard to their employment. It does suggest, however, that a clear command of English free of accents which render comprehension difficult for students should be a basic requirement for their employment.

Teacher induction procedures

The question of pre-service preparation of teachers highlights a very important aspect of teacher education that often tends to be overlooked in any discussion of the subject—the induction of the newly graduated teacher into the school situation. Burgess, in describing induction procedures suggested in the James Report, states (p. 25):

> The new teacher should have the support of an experienced colleague and not be expected to take full responsibility for all aspects of the role he will eventually assume. He should receive from the head and those colleagues explicitly designated by him advice and help not only on matters directly related to his job but also on a wide range of more general professional matters, such as relations with parents, teachers, H.M.I., L.E.O. officers, governors and managers, standards of discretion and confidentiality, pastoral responsibilities and management patterns within the school.

The measures proposed here closely approximate the views of the Committee on this important aspect of teacher education, for it sees that the effectiveness of the years spent in pre-service training can be significantly reduced if inadequate or unsympathetic supervision are offered and if well-structured professional assistance and support are not given in the very early stages of the initial appointment.

An examination of procedures operating in Western Australian secondary schools indicates that present induction procedures range from no planned measures to carefully structured procedures that are in effect well-planned extensions of principles adopted in the teacher education programme. Most schools indicated that at the senior master level careful guidance and assistance is available to new teachers on matters relating to content and methods of instruction. In administrative and organizational matters, however, it would appear that procedures are not quite so well developed.

The need for carefully structured induction procedures is recognized in the teachers' colleges in this State. The Secondary Teachers' College, for instance, provides a "transition to teaching" intensive course during graduation week in order to prepare students for their work in schools. While this greatly assists students, the College sees that induction is really a task for the schools. In its brochures, it states that "a heavy burden of professional induction must rest with the staffs of the schools which receive the newly graduated teachers". Aware of criticisms that have been levelled at teachers' college programmes with respect to the practical aspects of teaching, the brochure goes on to state: "It is no solution to join in widespread criticisms of the teachers' colleges. Rather does the remedy lie in a formalized programme of school induction." The College sees the following provisions as being desirable features of such a programme:

(1) A check-list of induction procedures to be issued to each new staff member.
(2) A modified teaching time-table (perhaps 25 to 30 periods per week), with reasonable opportunity for repetition of lessons in different groups.
(3) Provision for co-operative teaching with a more senior staff member. This staff member might act as a special mentor to the new teacher.
(4) Reasonably limited allocations of emergency class supervision and preferably no allocation to very difficult classes.
(5) Group discussion for all new staff members with a senior staff member at least once per month.
(6) Convenient classroom arrangements such as seating pupils in alphabetical order of surname.
(7) Devices for learning names including the use of class seat-plans.
(8) Discussion on punishment procedures.
(9) Arranging special assistance from specialist and district superintendents.
(10) Assisting new teachers to contact the local community and to develop culturally and professionally.
(11) Early transfer of a promising teacher who loses face in his early months of teaching.

In putting forward these provisions, however, the College is aware that professional development is a continuing process, and it states:

> While first contacts with the school situation may cause difficulties for some ex-students, it is true that, for most, the teaching task becomes progressively easier with experience. No college will claim that it produces teachers prepared for a life-time of teaching. The process of teacher education is a continuing one which should advance progressively from first appointment to retirement.

In their questionnaires, teachers made reference to difficulties experienced by beginning teachers in schools. Some expressed the view that "new" teachers should be sent to smaller schools where administrative staff could provide a greater degree of supervisory assistance in the first year of their teaching. Others suggested that new teachers should not be given Basic level classes, for it was in these classes that most disciplinary problems occurred. These views of teachers are given some support from analysis of the structured sections of the Teacher Questionnaire, which indicates that teachers with less than one year's experience perceive discipline to be more of a problem than do teachers with greater teaching experience.

The Committee, after examining the matter of teacher induction, considers that a significant number of disciplinary problems experienced by young teachers could be overcome if well-defined, continuing induction procedures relating to both instructional and administrative matters were established co-operatively by the principal and staff of secondary schools. These measures should complement and support measures carried out at a system level and by teachers' college staffs.

Recommendation

In each school, well-defined induction procedures for new teachers should be drawn up co-operatively by staff and administrators to complement and support measures which should be carried out at a system level by central office administrators and teachers' college staffs.

Unprofessional and immature teacher conduct

Although opinion was expressed in Teacher and Administrator Questionnaires that unprofessional, immature and irresponsible behaviour on the part of some teachers was responsible for deteriorating standards of student discipline, the Committee was unable to find evidence that this was the case. Undoubtedly there are isolated instances where such behaviours do occur, but their incidence is such that, in the total pattern of secondary education in this State, they would appear to constitute an insignificant factor.

ASPECTS OF STAFF DEPLOYMENT

Teacher specialization

Within Western Australian secondary schools, the nature of the curriculum offered and the administrative organization consequent upon the adoption of the Achievement Certificate with its multi-level approach have meant an increasing emphasis upon the use of specialist subject teachers. Reinforcing this is the effect of a promotional system that requires as its first step qualifications and teaching expertise within a limited number of subject areas. The assumption is now held both at a school and at a Departmental level that teachers should not be required to be competent and/or qualified to teach over the whole range of subjects offered in the secondary school, but should be qualified academically in one particular area with the ability to teach in a limited number of others. This assumption is given substance by administrative procedures within the school, by the design and function of new secondary schools and by the staffing policies adopted within the system, particularly with regard to schools offering specialized teaching facilities in a single subject area.

In interviews carried out with principals of secondary schools, the opinion was expressed that disciplinary problems were frequent in those classes where teachers were required to teach outside of the area of their expertise. This increase in disciplinary problems may be related to lack of teacher competence in the area, with a consequent lack in the quality of presentation, or it may be due to a lack of interest on the part of teachers in the subject being taught. Often, where time-tabling difficulties occur, teachers may be required to take subjects merely to fill out their teaching requirements.

From evidence gathered in the Administrator Questionnaire, it would appear that teachers in secondary schools often teach outside of the area of their particular expertise. In almost all schools, principals found difficulty in providing adequately trained and qualified staff in the core subjects and particularly in the fields of mathematics and science. Table 11.3, which lists subjects that schools reported as being most difficult to staff, illustrates the position with regard to teacher supply.

TABLE 11.3

SUBJECTS FOR WHICH SCHOOLS REPORTED MOST DIFFICULTY IN STAFFING

Subject	%
English—Social Studies	9
Mathematics—Science	43
Languages	3
Manual Arts—Home Economics	1
Typing—Commerce	7
Physical Education	9
Other	19
No Answer	9

It will be noted from the data in this table that the four core subjects were reported by over half the schools to be the most difficult to staff. A further analysis of the "other" category showed that these were mainly single-period non-core subjects.

While it would appear from administrator opinion that teaching outside of the area of expertise could be a factor contributing to indiscipline in the teaching/learning situation, the Committee does not have strong evidence to support this contention. It would seem reasonable to assume, however, that the quality of instruction offered has considerable effect upon student attitudes and interest in learning. Where teachers are more knowledgeable and interested in their subjects, therefore, it would seem that the quality of instruction would be enhanced. For this reason, the Committee considers that it would be desirable that teachers should be assigned wherever possible to teaching areas in which they possess some expertise. It is realized, however, that within the limits of staffing and time-tabling this is not always possible within schools, but if administrators are aware of the possible consequences of such action it may be possible to limit the occasions on which it occurs.

Sex differences among teachers

In submissions placed before the Committee, in interviews and in responses given in questionnaires, the opinion was expressed that female teachers had more problems with discipline than did male teachers and that one cause of increasing disciplinary problems was the increasing numbers of female teachers within the secondary service. In one submission by a school administrator, for example, an analysis of male offences reported by staff over a nine-week period to the deputy principal indicated that 76 per cent of all classroom offences by boys were reported by female teachers whereas only 22 per cent were by male teachers. While these percentages may relate to the numbers of male and female staff, to subjects taught, to teacher experience, etc., it was contended that "a possible conclusion from the evidence is that female teachers have considerably more disciplinary problems with boy students than do male teachers". The partial solution suggested was that of "staffing high schools with a smaller percentage of female teachers than is currently the position".

Male-female ratios. Assertions concerning the changing balance between male and female teachers in the Western Australian secondary teaching service are not substantiated by reference to statistics on staffing covering the last 25-year period. Table 11.4 sets out for selected years the numbers and percentages of female teachers in the secondary teaching service for the period 1947-1971.

TABLE 11.4

NUMBER OF FEMALE SECONDARY TEACHERS 1947–1971

Year	Total secondary teachers	Females	Female as % of total
1947	408	170	41·7
1949	412	176	42·7
1951	476	210	44·1
1953	618	252	40·8
1955	800	319	39·9
1957	930	372	40·0
1959	1,318	499	37·2
1961	1,406	539	38·3
1963	1,607	659	41·0
1965	1,864	748	40·1
1967	2,171	909	41·9
1969	2,575	1,086	42·2
1971	3,030	1,243	41·0

The figures in this table show that the percentage of female teachers in the secondary teaching force has remained remarkably consistent over the period under consideration. Even where the full-time equivalents of part-tame staff are considered, no alteration to this trend is evident. To assert that disciplinary problems are increasing because of the growing proportion of female to male teachers, therefore, is not supported by statistics relating to secondary staffing.

Administrator perceptions. It would be true to say that a majority of principals see disciplinary problems as not occurring predominantly with either male or female teachers. Table 11.5 sets out administrator responses to the question, "Do the majority of disciplinary problems occur with male or female teachers?".

TABLE 11.5

ADMINISTRATOR RESPONSES TO QUESTION "DO THE MAJORITY OF DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS OCCUR WITH MALE OR FEMALE TEACHERS?"

Response	%
Mainly with male teachers ..	1
Mainly with female teachers	18
With either male or female	79
No response	2

From this table it may be seen that 79 per cent of principals consider disciplinary problems to be equally distributed between male and female teachers. It is interesting to note, however, that 18 per cent of principals see that disciplinary problems occur mainly with female teachers.

Other evidence. Further analysis of questionnaire responses does not produce any strong evidence to support the hypothesis that female teachers are responsible for, or are involved in, a disproportionate number of disciplinary incidents with either male or female students. Of the students who indicated in the Student Questionnaire that they had been punished by a teacher during the first term of 1972, 37 per cent indicated that the teacher responsible for their punishment was female. This proportion is less than the 1971 figure of 41 per cent of females employed in the Western Australian teaching force and detailed in Table 11.4, Number of Female Secondary Teachers 1947-1971.

Consideration of the relative proportions of male and female teachers who report discipline to be very much a problem when they teach does not support the assertion that the confrontation between male students and female teachers is at the heart of school discipline problems. In their responses to the Teacher Questionnaire, 16.7 per cent of male teachers perceiving discipline to be very much a problem noted that students from the opposite sex posed the greatest problem. The corresponding proportion of female teachers identifying male students as the major source of trouble was 31.5 per cent. However, a slightly larger proportion of the male teachers claimed that male students caused most trouble; 38.1 per cent of male teachers designated male students compared with the 31.5 per cent of female teachers taking this view.

The final piece of empirical evidence bearing on this matter came from a more detailed analysis of teacher perceptions. The separate responses of teachers in the 19- to 25-year age group were considered, since this body of teachers, judging from their own comments and the perceptions of school administrators, was more prone to encounter control problems while managing a classroom, largely because of their relative inexperience at teaching.

(1) 7.7 per cent of female teachers felt discipline to be very much a problem when they taught and designated boys to be more likely a problem.

(2) 13.0 per cent of male teachers felt discipline to be very much a problem when they taught and designated boys to be more likely a problem.

(3) 6.3 per cent of female teachers felt discipline to be very much a problem when they taught and designated girls to be more likely a problem.

(4) 12.9 per cent of male teachers felt discipline to be very much a problem when they taught and designated girls to be more likely a problem.

These data in no way lend strong support to the hypothesis mooted above. If anything, they contradict the notion that female teachers are more likely to be involved in discipline problems. This is not to say that the more severe cases of indiscipline are found neither with one sex nor the other; the evidence collected by the Committee does not shed light on this question. Further, most of the evidence cited above relies on teachers' perceptions of whether they are having discipline problems but infractions of school discipline frequently affect other staff members not initially involved in the confrontation or disturbance. Teachers may be perceived by others to be unable to manage their classroom yet view themselves to have the situation under control. In summary, it would appear that the case against women teachers has not been proved. It may well have been based on misconception, bias or over-generalization.

Staff involvement

With increasing teacher professionalism and competence, the role of the principal in the secondary school has undergone considerable change. This change has involved a more participatory style of leadership which has as one of its main objectives the greater involvement of teachers in the decision-making processes of the school. This aspect of leadership has been discussed more fully in the section dealing with the school principal.

Staff meetings. One measure of staff involvement in school decision-making is the incidence of staff meetings held within the school. From a survey of secondary schools, these would appear to be held at two major levels. The first of these involves a meeting of all staff at a school level; the second is at the senior master level and involves all staff members under his supervision.

The practice of senior master/staff meetings is now an established feature in Western Australian secondary schools. In response to questions regarding the frequency with which these are held, 96 per cent of principals stated that they were held "very frequently" or "often" and only four per cent stated that they were held on infrequent occasions. In interview, principals stated that the use of such meetings had given greater direction to programme development within their schools and were a potent factor in contributing to instruction of a higher quality and variety at all levels. Some principals strongly supported the senior master/staff meeting as a means of improving teaching. Under this system, which gives greater autonomy of supervision to the senior master, the newly appointed teacher or the teacher experiencing teaching or control difficulties has been able to gain a greater measure of supervisory assistance and professional support. In the opinion of experienced principals, the development of such procedures helps to effect better student control and a more desirable learning climate within the school.

A survey of secondary schools with regard to the frequency of total staff meetings indicates that these are held, on the average, once a month. These meetings would appear to be devoted to matters of broad policy and administrative organization. In response to a question regarding the frequency with which matters of student discipline were raised by staff members, 26 per cent of principals stated that these were raised frequently and 52 per cent stated that they were raised occasionally. In interview principals indicated that disciplinary matters raised at these meetings tended to be directed towards a reaction to discipline in the school rather than to the development of policies aimed at its improvement. Principals tended to consider the full staff meeting to be too unwieldy for the close attention needed for the development of procedures relating to discipline.

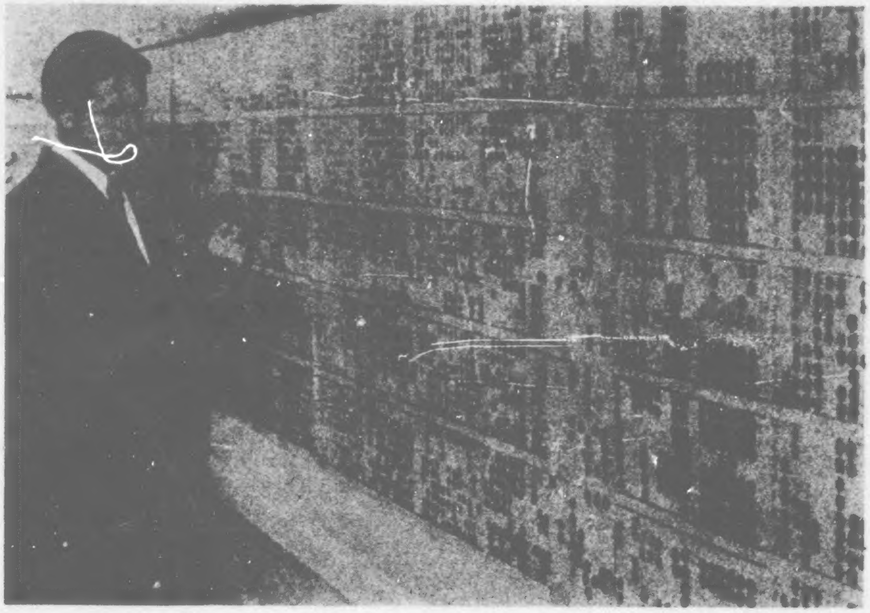
The Committee strongly supports the continuation and extension of staff meetings at levels below those of the full school and which are directed at specific purpose teacher groups within the school. It sees in these staff meetings a means whereby the somewhat impersonal atmosphere of the large comprehensive high school may be reduced and greater focus may be directed towards individual student problems at both a teaching and an administrative level. The opportunities which such meetings provide for communication among teachers must be commended. They also provide opportunities for leadership at a level lower than that of the principal or deputy principal. It is this leadership which can greatly assist the development of effective supervisory patterns within the school and thus have a desirable effect upon the quality of instruction offered to students.

Recommendation

The practice of staff meetings at all levels should be encouraged and extended wherever possible.

Time-tabling

The effects of time-tabling upon the efficient operation of the school are often overlooked in discussions regarding administrative organization. Within the large comprehensive school of today, the complexities associated with time-tabling large numbers of students and teachers and with providing a wide range of subject choice are becoming increasingly apparent. The problems associated with time-tabling are also exacerbated by the demands made upon schools by the multi-level approach of the Achievement Certificate and by the need to cater for an increasingly complex arrangement of choice in the optional subject areas.



In the section above on teacher specialization, reference was made to the fact that principals considered that a factor contributing to a deterioration of discipline in schools is the scheduling of teachers to teach outside of their area of expertise. While this is due mainly to lack of suitably qualified staff and to the fact that small school size precludes a full range of specialized teaching, it may also result from an incorrect or uneconomical scheduling of teachers' instructional time. An examination of time-tables in use in some high schools clearly demonstrates that a greater degree of efficiency and effectiveness in the use of teacher time could be achieved. Given the number of students, teachers, available space and student choice and the requirements of specialized time (*e.g.*, teacher "free" periods, educational visits, visiting teachers, etc.), it is clear that a wide variety of time-tabling arrangements could be devised which would impose a variety of operational characteristics on the functioning of the school. Conceptually, there would be some optimum arrangement of factors, but within the realities of getting a school into operation at the beginning of the year it would be extremely difficult to draw up and evaluate the various possible alternative arrangements.

In discussing time-tabling, teachers and administrators have expressed the opinion that some student discontent with school, and the roots of some disciplinary problems, may be traced to the first few weeks of school, where confusion can arise because school time-tabling is incomplete and in the process of rearrangement. While this observation may be correct, the Committee has been unable to gain any definite evidence in this regard. Observation suggests that a few schools experience time-tabling difficulties at the beginning of each school year and it would seem reasonable to assume that any confusion arising from this could have an unsettling effect upon some students, particularly those who are new to the school.

One area of concern to administrators is the scheduling of single-period non-core subjects. The wide choice offered to students in the selection of optional subjects imposes considerable burdens upon those responsible for time-table compilation. Recently attempts have been made within selected schools by the Research and Planning Branch of the Education Department and members of the Secondary Division to evaluate the feasibility of using automated data processing

TABLE 11.6

TEACHER/STUDENT CONTACTS IN A SAMPLE OF METROPOLITAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secondary schools	Number of different teachers/students										
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
Basic											
First year	....	....	1	2	2	3	2	2	....	2	14
Second year	....	....	....	4	....	2	2	1	....	....	9
Third year	....	....	....	3	3	1	....	....	....	....	7
Total number of students											30
Intermediate											
First year	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	2	....	6
Second year	....	....	1	2	2	4	2	....	1	....	12
Third year	1	....	3	1	1	3	1	....	....	....	10
Total number of students											28
Advanced											
First year	....	1	1	4	1	2	2	2	....	....	13
Second year	....	1	....	1	6	1	3	....	....	....	12
Third year	....	2	....	1	3	5	1	1	....	....	13
Total number of students											38
Totals	1	4	6	21	18	21	13	6	3	2	96

techniques to simplify the process of time-tabling options. Future effort will be made in this direction to devise workable and economic procedures to assist school administrators in this regard.

Teacher allocation

In their questionnaire, students were asked to indicate whether having to split into different groups for each subject was a source of worry to them. Analysis of the responses given to this question according to achievement level showed that a greater proportion of Basic than Advanced level students were affected by changing of groups. This evidence is supported by the opinions expressed by teachers in their questionnaire. Many stated that they considered that the very basic students (often called the "below Basic" or "basic Basic") would derive more sense of security within the school situation if their class groupings remained relatively unchanged or if they could be left with the one teacher for a majority of their instructional periods. This aspect of school organization has been treated in greater depth in other sections of this Report.

In order to gain an estimate of the number of teachers which students in secondary schools must face in the course of instruction, a survey was made of teacher/student contacts for a sample of secondary school students. Table 11.6 sets out by year and level the numbers of different teachers faced by students during the course of a week's instruction.

This table indicates that the range of teacher contacts for all groups extends from seven to sixteen and that the average for all students exceeds ten. While the large number of teacher contacts may represent a large measure of choice of subjects and the efficient use of teacher expertise, it could in some respects indicate inefficient time-tabling and staff allocation. When consideration is given to the number of subjects studied by any one student, the number of teacher

TABLE 11.7

TEACHER/STUDENT CONTACTS PER WEEK—
METROPOLITAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Number of students	Frequency of teachers
0-100	3
100-199	10
200-299	19
300-399	9
400-499	2
500-599	1
600-699	3
Total	47

contacts for some students would appear to be excessive. There is some concern in that the larger number of teacher/student contacts is occurring in the larger senior high school, where the risk of impersonality in student/teacher relations is already the greatest.

Further evidence to support the above concern regarding the impersonality in the larger high schools may be gained from an examination of the numbers of students faced by teachers during the course of a week's instruction.

Table 11.7 sets out the numbers of students faced by a random sample of 47 metropolitan high school teachers.

The Committee feels some concern that 36 per cent of teachers in the sample are seeing in excess of 300 students per week, with some teachers having in excess of 500 or 600 student contacts. In addition to the strain that this would impose on the teacher with regard to recording, marking and supervision, these large numbers of contacts must significantly extend the possibilities of impersonality and increase the difficulties of student control.

As indicated above, a large number of teacher contacts per student may be interpreted as an indication of variety and wide choice of subject matter, features which the Achievement Certificate system attempts to foster. In similar manner a large number of student contacts for teachers may be an indication of the wide use of teacher talent and economical use of staff resources. The Committee is concerned, however, that in some instances teachers contact an extremely large number of students and *vice versa*. Admittedly the average of both forms of contact would appear to be reasonable, and, indeed, what is reasonable may vary according to the nature of the subject being taught, the characteristics of the group under instruction, and the various technologies available. There would appear to be, however, a need to make a careful appraisal of the degrees of student and teacher contact operating in the extremes in order to assess their effect upon teacher performance and morale and upon student performance and attitudes. The Commitee has no evidence to suggest what are optimum teacher/student and student/teacher contact ratios and would, therefore, be unwilling to set any standards in this regard. In view of opinions expressed elsewhere in the Report regarding the impersonality of large high schools and of the effects of constant regrouping upon Basic level students, and out of concern for teacher loadings, it does suggest that every attempt should be made in teacher allocation to keep each of these ratios as low as is consistent with the effective utilization of teacher expertise and the maximum of student/subject choice.

Recommendation

Where schools assess such a need, students at the lower end of the ability range should have as many subjects as possible combined under one teacher.

CHAPTER 12

SCHOOL AND THE HOME

THE HOME

That the home and the social environment have a profound effect upon a child's induction into the school system, to his adjustment to its numerous demands, and to his subsequent progress and development would be questioned by few educators. The effect of the home environment upon the process of formal education has been recognised in numerous reports upon both primary and secondary education. In the Haddow Report (1927), for instance, recognition was given to the quality of home background. It saw that the child approaching school from an enriched and secure home had "the foundations of education well laid" as opposed to the child from a poor home, of whom it stated:

> . . . his vocabulary is limited, his general knowledge is narrow; he has little opportunity for reading and his power of expressing himself . . . is inadequate.

The Plowden Report (1967, p. 29) supported and extended this view. In speaking of the power of the environment, it stated:

> . . . The rise in educational standards is due to improvements in the schools themselves; but it is also due to changes in the homes from which the children come, and beyond the homes, to changes in the wider society of which the children and their parents are members. . .

School attainment

There have been several studies set in the Australian context seeking to unravel the relationships between home background factors and school performance. Campbell (1952) some years ago demonstrated that achievement at high school was influenced by the home environment. In his study Campbell looked at the values and attitudes held by the parents as well as the social activities of the home and linked these with school achievement.

Hammond and Cox (1967) traced the educational progress of 343 Melbourne Fifth Grade students. Social class and family practices factors were shown to be related to performance at school.

In an extensive study utilizing data collected in the Study of Science Achievement conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, Keeves (1972) looked at the relationships between home background, peer group influences and the school—three environments which provide an array of forces impinging upon the individual student. A sample of students from the Australian Capital Territory was employed in the investigation. In a cautiously worded conclusion, Keeves notes significant relationships between certain environmental factors and the learning of science at the lower secondary school. Occupational status of the parent and family size were positively related to science achievement. Of more practical significance, attitudes and expectations of the parents for the student's progress in school were found to be important. The practices of the home, particularly those involving relationships between the home and the school, including the use of books and provision of library and homework facilities, were found to contribute significantly to achievement in science.

Confirmation of these various findings emerged in an analysis of the High School Student Questionnaire employed in the current investigation.

A sample was selected from among students in the lower school who were working at Basic level in all four core subjects. These students were achieving below the 25th centile in English, mathematics, science and social studies. Various home background factors characteristic of the group were compared with those of a group of highly successful students—those in the upper quartile of achievement in the core subjects, namely, the Advanced level students. Examination of Table 12.1 suggests that the Basic group was more likely to be made up of students from homes with fewer educative facilities and a climate less conducive towards achieving at school.

These differences do not reflect a simple dichotomy between working class and middle class home backgrounds. There was not a strong relationship between the father's occupational status and successful versus unsuccessful school achievement, 29 per cent of both groups reporting that their fathers were employed as tradesmen or semi-skilled and unskilled workers. As Wiseman (1967) has concluded, literacy within the home and attitudes towards books and educative processes are more important than mere membership of a social class. Statements about the achievement and attitudes of students from working class homes are too gross to be of any real value. Variables defined by Dave (1963) in terms of environmental processes have been shown to be useful descriptions of home environments. These include the importance attached to achievement, language models used in the home, academic guidance, stimulation in the home to explore various aspects of the larger environment, intellectual interests and activities of the home, and the work habits emphasized in the home. Students who are products of home environments which engender these processes, other things being equal, are more likely to succeed at school.

TABLE 12.1

SELECTED HOME BACKGROUND FACTORS OF STUDENTS ADVANCED IN ALL FOUR CORE SUBJECTS COMPARED WITH STUDENTS BASIC IN ALL FOUR CORE SUBJECTS

	Advanced in all four core subjects	Basic in all four core subjects
	N = 491	N = 216
	%	%
Family si—		
Percentage having four or more brothers or sisters living at home	12	35
Language problem		
Percentage having both parents speak English at home	97	84
Homework reminder		
Percentage reminded every day to complete their homework	48	36
Parental interest		
Percentage discussing schoolwork with parents at home at least once or twice a week	68	38
Facilities at home		
Percentgage having a dictionary	98	75
Percentage having more than a bookcase of books	90	59
Television		
Percentgage watching three or more hours a day	19	47
Evenings at home		
Percentage of students who spent four or more evenings away from home each week	11	32

The relative impact of home and school. From a study of more than 5,000 children born in Britain during the first week of March, 1946, Douglas (1964) found that, during the primary school years, the influence of parental interest was greater than the influence of other factors associated with home background. The effect of parental encouragement appeared cumulative. He noted (pp. 67-68) that the attitude of children to their school work is deeply affected by the degree of encouragement their parents give them.

> The children who show few symptoms of emotional instability and whose parents are ambitious for their academic success have an increasing advantage during the years they are at primary school, largely because they pursue their studies with greater vigour and concentration than less favoured children are prepared or able to do.

In another extensive English study, Wiseman (1967, pp. 368-369), investigating the relationship between the educational attainment of primary school children and environmental factors, concluded:

> The most important of our findings, perhaps, is the demonstration that the major forces associated with educational attainment are to be found within the home circumstances of the children. These home

> variables have, *pro rata*, nearly twice the weight of neighbourhood and school variables put together.

Wiseman's research is substantiated by the controversial conclusions of the Coleman Report (1966). Coleman and his collaborators had expected to find that the disparities in academic achievement in different schools could be attributed to differences in the quality of the school. Factors such as age of school buildings, number of textbooks, average class size, and teachers' education were all thought likely explanations for the differences in achievement from school to school. The evidence collected by Coleman did not support this view. Although schools undoubtedly influence school achievement, their effects are remarkably uniform. Rather the achievement disparities may be explained by the inequalities imposed on students by their home, their community and their peer group environment. Coleman summarizes this conclusion (p. 325):

> Taking all these results together, one implication stands out above all—that schools have little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context; and that this very lack of an independent effect means that the inequalities imposed on children by their home, neighbourhood, and peer environment are carried along to become the inequalities with which they conform to adult life at the end of school.

This finding of the Coleman Report, which so dramatically underlines the relatively more important component of home background in explaining school achievement, has subsequently been confirmed by other studies. The IEA Mathematics Project reported by Husen (1967), a study of achievement in mathematics at the 13-year-old and the pre-university levels in twelve countries, draws similar conclusions. The Plowden Report (1967) also contains in its appendices analyses of the relative influence of the home and the school on the level of achievement of the child.

In some respects, the relative importance of the home in facilitating the cognitive development of children can be better appreciated by the realization that children do not begin school as empty receptacles ready to be filled with knowledge. Until the child commences school in his sixth year, the parents have been his teachers and, by their actions and attitudes, have influenced their child's aspirations and motivation. Further studies by Bernstein (1961), Hess and Shipman (1965) and Deutsch (1965) reveal the way in which the home influences language development as well as the development of cognition and thought.

The development of affective qualities

Research has tended to focus on an evaluation of the schools' success in attaining the more apparent goal of the educative process—the development of the cognitive skills. It is evident that the home environment has a very large impact in determining the success with which a student masters the necessary cognitive skills. The relative contributions of the home and the school in developing the affective qualities, such as responsibility and independence, which are necessary to succeed in our society, have not been so comprehensively explored by educationists.

Many educationists are aware that psychological characteristics of the home, such as the emotional climate and interpersonal attitudes and feelings, influence the development in children of such qualities as independence, passivity, hostility and friendliness. These factors in turn influence the adjustment of students at school and thus also the classroom disciplinary climate. However, the demonstration of this process is made difficult by the complex interrelationships among the variables. Watts (1970) has noted several difficulties in explicating the casual relationships between personality characteristics of the child and school learning. Firstly, some of the key variables are of such a broad level of generality that it is difficult to make definitive statements about them. The "psychological environment" of the home is one such variable, the "personality" of the child another. Probably a more confounding influence, however, is that of the host of possible intervening variables that may obscure the true causal relationship between, for example, personality characteristics and school learning. Watts (1970 p. 86) writes of such an intervening variable:

> Classrooms and schools exhibit their own characteristics, differences between teachers are as pronounced as differences between children. Learning, particularly in the early years, is partly a function of the "match" between teacher personality and child personality, and partly a function of the degree of congruence between the child's characteristics and the demands of the classroom (p. 86).

In other words, displays of poor social adjustment in the classroom, such as hostility towards the teacher, may not necessarily be the result of an attitude acquired at home—or, at least, not totally. The causal explanation may need to take into account the approach of the teacher as well as the personality of the student.

The fact that these causal connections between home and school have been difficult to trace out does not mean that nothing is known of the influence of the home. Peck (1958) reported a study of the effect of parental discipline and family characteristics on the personalities of adolescent children. Families that were characterized by a high degree of mutual trust and approval between parents and child also tended to be families in which children were given some responsibility in making decisions that affected their family life. Objective observers rated the behaviour of children from such families and found them to be more emotionally mature, more emotionally stable, less hostile, more spontaneous and more friendly than children from families in which the parents fulfilled strict authoritarian roles. In another study, conducted by Helper (1958), the relationship between the degree of self-acceptance expressed by adolescents and the degree to which their parents accepted and approved of them was examined and established. Self-acceptance plays an important part in emotional security. It would appear that children who live in families where the atmosphere is one of continual and severe disapproval and criticism tend to accept a negative evaluation of themselves.

Peer group influences

It would be unwise to paint too imposing a picture of the influence of the home environment on school achievement and adjustment. Hargreaves (1967) regards the belief, held by some teachers, that students are difficult in school *because* they come from difficult homes as a convenient over-simplification. He believes it is common practice for teachers to shed the blame for many difficulties which might be caused or reinforced by the school itself onto the home environment. Hargreaves's study affirms the fundamental importance of the social system of the school, and especially the structure of the peer groups, in relation to the educative process. Without a valid autonomous status in the eyes of their teachers, adolescents are pressured towards conforming to the peer group with its own values, norms and status hierarchies. It is during adolescence that the search for a self identity is most marked and many basic social attitudes are acquired.

The powerful influence of the student peer group sanctioned norms is not always fully appreciated. Asch (1952) demonstrated that there is a tendency for individuals to conform to the group's judgement even when the judgement is obviously contrary to fact.

While a student's home background may partially determine the peer group to which he ultimately belongs, once attached, the group norms may run counter to those promoted either at home or officially by the school.

It is well established that the norms that the student peer groups espouse are not always conducive to maintaining the educative process. For example, overall only 37 per cent of students surveyed by the Committee responded that they wanted to be one of the best students in their class. Further, only 33 per cent of students preferred to be remembered as an outstanding student versus 29 per cent opting for star sportswoman or sportsman and 34 per cent opting for most popular student. Somewhat paradoxically, many schools formally encourage these values by awarding trophies for athletic excellence yet provide a verbal commendation only for scholastic prowess.

A CASE STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF HOME ENVIRONMENT

Many teachers are relatively isolated from the home environments of their students. Often they live miles from the high school site, have little contact with the students they teach and have no ready mechanism available to allow them to appraise the social and economic conditions in which their students live.

The generalized results of empirical research carried out by various investigators have been presented to demonstrate the importance of the student's home background to his performance and adjustment to the school situation. Evidence such as this, however, is often unable to describe the true perspective of events. Percentages are cold and unemotive terms for describing the cultural and economic poverty of some homes. The relationships that are uncovered are often grossly summarized by statistics based on questionnaire results or school based interviews.

Social workers are persons who are trained to deal with cases of student maladjustment and to look within the home for factors mediating the probable causes underlining the maladaptive behaviour. An in-depth case history prepared by a trained social worker is quoted in part below. The study is one of several prepared by Ellis (1971) in her investigation of multi-problem families in Western Australia. The description must surely emphasize the degree to which some children in our community fail to receive the material, social and psychological support that so many take for granted. In extreme cases the school is confronted with an enormous task if it is in any way going to succeed in compensating children such as these for the total deprivation within their homes.

The Stone family*

The parents of the Stone children

Mr Stone was born in 1929 and had only one sibling, who died at the age of four years. His parents were divorced and his father was killed in an accident when Mr Stone was ten years old. His mother carried on a successful business and is still living but he sees very little of her. He was educated to Junior standard and later completed his Leaving Certificate part time, and an apprenticeship, by the age of 20 years. He held numerous positions until he married at the age of 21 years.

Soon after the marriage, his wife became seriously ill and spent a considerable time in various hospitals. This resulted in a permanent mental defect, and she also suffered from asthma which was the reason they came to Western Australia five years after their marriage. During this time, Mr. Stone was incapacitated by an accident at work. He was "not employable" at this stage and received an invalid pension. Because of his wife's continual ill-health, Mr. Stone employed a part-Aboriginal woman to keep house, and a *de facto* relationship was established.

A considerable amount of money was paid to Mr. Stone in compensation, with which he purchased two houses, one for his wife and children and the other for his *de facto* and their children. He became the father of seven children within seven and a half years—three to his wife and four to his *de facto*. Three previous children of his marriage had died. His *de facto* broke off their relationship for a time and had a child to another *de facto*. Shortly afterwards they were reconciled and another son was born. Mr. Stone commenced a business of his own but this failed and he soon became bankrupt and had to apply for monetary assistance. His *de facto* deserted him leaving her children with Mr. Stone. They were sent to the city to live in an institution, and Mr. Stone set up another *de facto* relationship with Mrs. Barry.

Mrs. Barry had already been married and, though she was now separated, had lived with a previous *de facto*. She had five children (one deceased) by her husband and two by the *de facto*. Her husband deserted her and four years later she lived with a Mr. Mann for five years before she left him. Because of his excessive drinking, her children had been sent to a reception home by the Child Welfare

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* All names used in this case history are fictitious, though the events described are true.

Department, and all were fostered out to different homes. They then returned home and Mrs. Barry met Mr. Stone and moved in with him on a *de facto* relationship. Mr. Stone was very jealous of her attention to her son William. When they moved to live in the city to be near his own children, William, 16 years, was left in an empty house because "he was old enough to fend for himself".

On arrival in the city, Mr. Stone's four eldest children returned to live with him and the three younger ones continued to live in the institution. Mrs. Barry bore three children to Mr. Stone during this association. Shortly afterwards Mrs. Barry deserted him and reported that he had been having sexual intercourse with the eldest girl of his first *de facto*. Mr. Stone was imprisoned on a charge of unlawful carnal knowledge, rather than incest, because there appeared to be some doubt as to her true paternity.

All the children were placed in different foster homes because the children did not wish to live with Mrs. Barry, who was described as "a subnormal, slovenly type of woman". They were placed two separately and four in pairs in four different foster homes. The three youngest children of Mr. Stone and Mrs. Barry remained with their mother. Whilst Mr. Stone was in prison, however, Mrs. Barry was evicted and went out to work, placing these three remaining children in an institution.

After examining this network of unstable and fragmentary relationships, Ellis looked at the effect of the home and institutionalized environments on the children.

Children of Mrs Barry

Doris
(27 years)

Married at seventeen years, separated, and is now living in a *de facto* relationship.

William
(23 years)

Deserted by his father when he was four years of age and sent to a reception home at ten years until thirteen years, when he returned to live with his mother. At 16 years, he was deserted again by his mother when she came to the city with Mr. Stone. William joined them later as a result of his mother's pleas, after Mr. Stone had been charged with unlawful carnal knowledge, breaking and entering and stealing, disorderly conduct, and had been committed to care. However, the relationship between William and Mr. Stone was so strained that he returned to the country and was then sentenced to prison for indecent assault on a 17-year-old girl. There he met his own father (who spent a lot of time in prison) for the first time since he had deserted them. While in prison he was assessed as "a sociopathic personality due to background".

Joan
(20 years)

Fostered, together with Doris, in the country and wrote complaining that their foster father was drinking and illtreating them and accusing them of bad behaviour and stealing. She was removed to another foster home, where she settled down and found suitable employment when she was seventeen.

David
(13 years)

Never settled down and continued to have behavioural problems. He was difficult at school, and had poor results. He was described as "hard to control" and "behaving in a strange manner". He behaved improperly to a little girl and ran away several times. He suffers from headaches and has had no contact with his mother for many years.

Children of Mrs. Barry and her first defacto

Pip
(12 years)

Lacks concentration and is in a remedial class at school.

Mary
(11 years)

Said to be quiet, placid, lazy, co-operative and obedient.

Children of Mr Stone

Penny
(15 years)

At 13 years described as immature, short and slight, more like a 10-year-old in appearance. Two years behind at school, accounted for by her low intellectual capacity. "Borderline mental defective", lacks confidence in her ability to succeed. She could not cope at school and at 15 years sought school exemption—considered slow, naive, inadequate.

Shane
(14 years)

When 10 years was described as small, hyperactive, with a passion to succeed but no confidence. Normal intelligence but not performing according to potential. At school she is in a class behind her age, poor concentration. Emotionally disturbed by family break-up. Refused to be fostered and remained in the institution.

Kathleen
(12 years)

At 9 years was reported on as "average intelligence—but inconsistent performance and on verbal tests scored within the dull normal range". Foster mother reported she was "not quite with it" and was having speech difficulties. She attended a special speech class and was losing contact with her friends because of this. She screams and is enuretic and is so vague she is unable to do anything for herself. In contrast to her sisters, whom she visited in Bridgewater, she was described as a "refined girl enjoying the benefits of good training and the foster home life with people interested in her future".

Children of Mr. Stone and his first defacto

Jenny
(15 years)

Described as tall for her age, attractive, looking older than her years and of normal intelligence, but slow. Said to be labouring under severe emotional blockage and experiencing an acute sense of guilt that she was responsible for the plight of the rest of her family in the loss of their father. She was a year behind at school, which suggested she had not been functioning up to potential for some time on account of an "emotional disturbance arising out of unsatisfactory home conditions possibly of long standing".

Workers were concerned about the wisdom of these elder girls being returned to their home on the father's release from prison because of the nature of his offence.

Brian
(14 years)

Settled into the fostering situation and at 10½ years was described as bright, normal intelligence, almost superior on performance. He was well behaved, fitted into groups but not a leader, had no bad habits, and had a sense of responsibility. He was seeking affection and he stated he wanted to be a doctor. He did not correspond with his father while the latter was in prison.

Kay
(12 years)

In a special class at school.

Joseph
(8 years)

Repeating a grade at school and receiving speech therapy.

Children of Mr. Stone and Mrs. Barry

Connie
(7 years)

Retarded. Required speech therapy.

Lee
(5 years)

Moody, insecure, bed-wetting, temper tantrums.

Paul
(3 years)

Ill health—inadequate diet.

CO-ORDINATION OF AGENCIES

The case history of the Stone family not only records the failure of a home environment to carry out an adequate socialization of the children but also indicates the participation of other agencies which are available in our community to take over in the event of a breakdown. Specialized agencies formed to help the school-age child with his personal and social adjustment include, amongst others, the Guidance and Special Services Branch and the School Welfare Branch of the Education Department, the Child Welfare Department, Mental Health Services, the Public Health Department, the Western Australian Police Department, various church-based welfare agencies and community sponsored groups such as Lions or Rotary.

The problems of deviant school behaviour with which a teacher is confronted are often the tip of an iceberg of maladjustment, the bulk of which is centred in the home. While the school, through its guidance system, has the potential to detect students who are maladjusted, their attempts to treat the student are often frustrated by the fact that the roots of the problem are not located at school. It is usually not within the province of a school guidance officer's role to follow the problem to its source; and often he has not been trained to do so. The agencies which are qualified to work with maladjusted students in the home in most instances have no formal contact with school; yet it is most surely in the best interests of the school that as much help as possible should be extended to its students in the extra-school context. The current system has certain constraints simply because school and community agencies interested in the welfare of the student have separate spheres of influence, and co-operation is secured largely on an *ad hoc* basis.

Reid (1965) notes that for some time social welfare programmes have persistently been criticized for the "duplicating", "overlapping" and "fragmentary" approaches which they have adopted. If the likelihood of the treatment succeeding is to be maximized, then some form of co-ordination between these agencies which have a defined interest in the welfare of adolescents should be effected and the separation of services between home and school should be diminished or removed.

Analysis of case studies of students who exhibit extremely deviant behaviour within high schools suggests that often no simple grouping of factors may be identified to account for the behaviour exhibited, nor in most cases would any single course of action adopted within the school appear to offer an effective means of arresting such behaviour.

From the evidence suggested in the case studies, it is apparent that maladaptive behaviour is not confined to the school situation. Often its cause is in the home or the wider social environment and, for this reason, remedial measures applied within the school have little chance of success unless backed by corresponding measures in these areas.

Since causes of extremely deviant school behaviour may often be outside of the school situation, it would seem desirable that some means be devised whereby remedial programmes adopted within the school may be supplemented by corresponding programmes within the home and community. This will most probably involve a need to co-ordinate all Government and community organizations dealing with the welfare of the child and will necessitate the establishment within the school system of a person trained in social work to co-ordinate home-school measures and to liaise with these other organizations.

Recommendation

The services of trained social workers should be made available to assist in the counselling of students and to provide a liaison between the home, the school and other welfare agencies.

Vocational guidance

Closely related to the question of home—school—community contact is the question of providing for those students who exhibit extremely maladaptive behaviour an alternative to schooling where expert opinion considers this to be in the best interests of the student. The most obvious alternative is to gain employment in business or industry.

An analysis of the behaviour patterns, educational aspirations and performance of many of the students who exhibit extremely maladaptive behaviour in high schools would indicate that lack of maturation and home support are factors which contribute to a negative attitude towards schooling. It would seem that even the most carefully prepared remedial measures may have only a limited effect upon many of those students who have not yet turned 15 years of age and who are attending school largely because of the legal compulsion. Even the most concentrated rehabilitation measures on the part of social workers and others may have very limited success in re-adjusting numbers of these students towards school.

At the present time, the Education Department, when faced with students of this nature, endeavours to help them to secure suitable employment. This is done only when, in the opinion of the parents and the school, such employment is in the best interests of the student. In order that a student who has turned 14 years may seek employment, the Department will approve an exemption from further attendance at school.

The Committee agrees with the principle of exemption for employment when it is in the best interests of the student. The Committee is concerned, however, that such students often have little appreciation of the career opportunities available within the community, and the academic or other requirements necessary for entry into these. It may be to the advantage of the school and to the student if suitable arrangements could be made to place the extremely maladaptive student in suitable employment. Alternatively, the realization of the worth of academic studies in selecting a career may provide incentive for the maladaptive student to remain at school and modify his behaviour. The Committee, therefore, makes the following recommendations:

Recommendations

The Education Department should appoint officers trained in vocational guidance procedures to have responsibility for examining the career opportunities available to maladaptive students. These officers, in co-operation with social workers and school guidance officers, should co-ordinate and direct efforts aimed at placing them in suitable employment.

The Education Department should institute measures whereby the efforts of guidance staff may be co-ordinated with those of social workers to ensure that every opportunity is given to maladaptive students to enable them to take advantage of career opportunities.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Youth education officers

Recognizing the need to assist the integration of the early school leaver into the community, youth education officers are appointed to high schools. Currently 14 serve in the larger high schools. These persons are generally teachers seconded from the Department, though non-teachers with special qualifications in youth work are also appointed.

The essential function of youth education officers is to develop rapport with potential early school leavers (these are generally the poorer achieving students) and to provide a link between these students and youth and sporting associations, shire officials and businessmen. Within the school, these officers are involved in such fields as driver education, outdoor education, trial job placement, the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme, and sessions in community adjustment.

Effect on discipline

The youth education officer is a non-teacher who is at school and is available to help students who have a problem at school or home or with leisure. Students appear to have less reluctance to come to the youth education officer than to other staff members. Through informal channels, the youth education officer is able to give students help and advice in general problems as well as to assist the young person to find an activity suited to his interest, in the local district.

Some principals where this scheme operates feel strongly that the youth officer has improved the discipline of the school by providing a measure of pastoral care as well as opportunity for youths alienated from school to gain an interest in a club in their district. The Committee endorses the activities of youth education officers.

Recommendation

The appointment of further youth education officers by the Education Department should be encouraged.

RELATIONS BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL

Introduction

The bulk of studies reviewed in this chapter support the view that parental interest and support are vitally important for achievement. This being so, then the school should do what it can to increase this interest and support. However, if teachers consistently regard parents as uninterested and apathetic, any programme to achieve this end is likely to prove abortive.

Sharrock (1970) points out a danger of trying to increase contact and co-operation between the home and school without understanding the sociological and other implications of their relationship. Discontinuity between the home and the school can give rise to conflict in a student who is pulled in two directions. This is likely, particularly for the student from a working class background, since the lower the social strata the greater the probability of resistance to formal education and learning. For the middle class child, however, the relationship between means and long-term ends reduces the possibility of a clash of interests between the home and the school.

The school not only is obliged to forward information of student achievement to parents but also needs a reciprocal return of information. Teachers' understandings of students' learning difficulties would be improved if they knew more about their home backgrounds and were able to hear from parents themselves about matters that especially concern them.

A number of procedures are available to increase the contact between home and school.

(1) School reports.
(2) Interviews with parents at school.
(3) Interviews with parents in their homes.
(4) School functions such as open days or sporting carnivals.
(5) Parents and Citizens' meetings and functions.
(6) Circulars and individual letters to parents.
(7) Contact with parents at social occasions.

The Committee is of the opinion that schools place too much reliance on school reports for communicating with parents.

Attendance at Parents and Citizens' meetings

Generally speaking, Parents and Citizens' Association meetings in Western Australia are not well attended by the parents of children attending high schools. In the questionnaire sent to parents, the question was asked, "Do you usually attend Parents and Citizens' meetings at the school?". Eighty-nine per cent of parents signified that they did not do so.

In order to determine some of the possible causes for non-attendance at meetings, parents were asked to state the reasons why they did not attend. Of the respondents, only nine per cent indicated that they did not attend because they did not think anything very useful came out of Parents and Citizens' meetings, and only seven per cent stated that they did not attend because of lack of interest. Most parents indicated that their reasons for non-attendance were due to a variety of matters other than lack of interest. Many stated that they were either working or were busy on other matters at the time of meetings.

It would appear from responses obtained in the Parent Questionnaire that a majority of parents are supportive of the principle of Parents and Citizens' Associations, but do not feel inclined to embrace consistent membership or attendance at meetings. Further, those that *do* attend are not representative of parents in general. They tend to represent those parents currently more satisfied with the present school system. Perhaps of more importance is the fact that in Western Australian high schools Parents and Citizens' meetings are over-represented by persons from occupations with high social status.

Table 12.2 illustrates this trend in representation.

TABLE 12.2

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AND ATTENDANCE AT PARENTS AND CITIZENS' MEETINGS

	Occupational type					
	Contractor	Labourer	Teacher	Clerk	Mechanic	Doctor
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Usually attend	11	6	16	11	8	16
Usually do not attend	87	93	83	88	91	83

N = 1512

It would seem that the views of a particular section of the community are likely to be put at these meetings. The parents in most need of help are not at these meetings to make their voices heard.

Parent participation in school policy. Many educational writers would support in theory the principle that parents should be involved in the formation of school policy and should be involved as much as possible in decisions relating to the education of their children. However, at a practical level parent involvement and co-operation often means persuading parents to accept the views of teachers. The Plowden Report (1967) agreed with the majority of teachers whom it surveyed, stating unequivocally that parents should not "run the schools".

In order to assess the degree to which Western Australian parents wished to be involved in the decision-making processes of the school, the following three questions were asked in the Parent Questionnaire:

(1) Do you think that parents should help decide what books students read at school or should this matter be left to the principal and staff?

(2) Do you think that parents should have a say in the making of school rules or should this matter be left to the principal and staff?

(3) Do you think that parents should help decide what subjects should be taught in schools or should this matter be left to the principal and staff?

Table 12.3 summarizes the percentage responses given by parents to these three questions.

TABLE 12.3

SUMMARY OF PARENTS RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS REGARDING THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL DECISION-MAKING (N = 1,512)

Response	Parent involvement		
	Student books	School rules	Subject selection
	%	%	%
Parents should help	16	20	22
Left to principal and staff	81	77	74
Uncertain	3	3	4
Total	100	100	100

The responses indicate that a majority of parents are content to leave to teachers decision-making regarding the education of their children, and about matters concerning the regulation of their behaviour in school. An analysis of responses from parents who have recently migrated to Australia showed that parents who had emigrated from the United Kingdom held attitudes similar to those held by Australian born parents on these matters. Parents who emigrated from Northern Europe showed a greater tendency than other ethnic groups to seek participation in these decision-making areas.

Parent school contact. Generally speaking, parents of children in Western Australian high schools make little contact with the principal or teachers of the school which their children attend.

Parents were asked to indicate whether or not they had spoken about their child's work with the school principal or with their child's teacher during the year. Eighty-three per cent indicated that they had not done so. It is possible that this lack of contact is due to a feeling of complacency regarding the education that their child is receiving. Figure 12.1 sets out percentage responses to the question, "Are you satisfied with the type of education that your child is receiving at school?" The percentage responses contained in Figure 12.1 indicate that, on the whole, most parents are quite satisfied with the type of education their children are receiving. In fact, only five per cent of parents showed any dissatisfaction, and only one per cent any marked dissatisfaction.

Even though most parents stated that they were reasonably satisfied with the type of secondary education that their children were receiving, a large number considered that communication between home and school could be improved. For example, 43 per cent of respondents felt that more information was needed on school report cards and 57 per cent would like to meet and talk with their child's teachers more than they are doing now. Seemingly contradicting evidence was

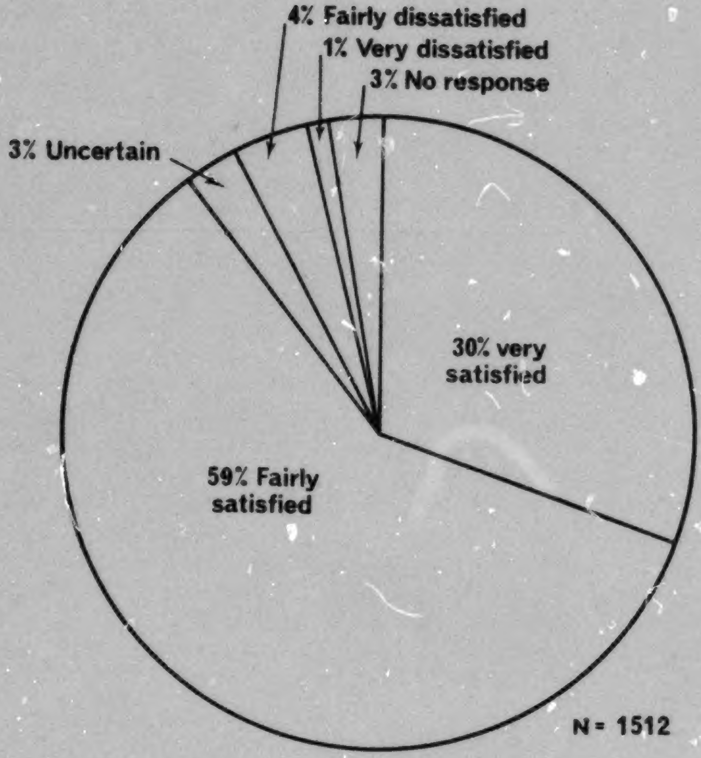

FIGURE 12.1 PARENT RESPONSES TO QUESTION: "ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH THE TYPE OF EDUCATION THAT YOUR CHILD IS RECEIVING AT SCHOOL?"

the response of parents to an item designed to assess the degree to which parents were aware of their child's educational progress. The question was asked, "How well do you know about your child's progress at school?". Only 10 per cent of parents indicated that they were not sure how their child was progressing. It would seem that parents feel capable of broadly evaluating the progress of their child, but see a need for more fine-grained detail, particularly with regard to the child's social-emotional adjustment. A number of written comments were made to this effect. Parent concern over the reporting of behaviour may be further emphasized by the fact that nearly every parent (more than 99 per cent.) who returned a questionnaire replied in the affirmative to the question, "Do you think that parents should be notified whenever their child has seriously misbehaved at school?".

Most Western Australian parents, while they are prepared to allow teachers to make most educational decisions, are genuinely interested in establishing greater communication between home and school regarding pupil progress.

Summary

Evidence from several sources suggests that the degree of parent-school contact in Western Australian high schools leaves much to be desired. While small bands of dedicated parents are extremely active through Parents and Citizens' Associations, most are content to allow the school to determine all matters relating to the education of their children. That they are content with the type of education being provided is evident from parent responses and this may account for the reluctance of most parents to approach the school to check up on their children's educational adjustment and progress. In contrast with the strong degree of parent interest for participation in educational decisions often claimed in such countries as the United States and Canada, Western Australian parents show very little desire to participate in educational policy-making. They are generally quite content to leave this to professional educators.

While parents may not wish to participate directly in education decision-making, they are nevertheless anxious to maintain strong channels of communication between school and home with regard to student progress, and they show a strong desire to be informed of any serious misbehaviour by children at school. It would appear, therefore, that the establishment of more effective communication between the home and the school could help in the maintenance of desirable levels of pupil behaviour and performance within the school.

The Committee appreciates that there does not appear to be a strong demand by parents for participation in educational policy-making at the school level. It does, however, strongly support the principle of a close parent-school partnership in education and agrees with the need for greater opportunities for parent-school contact. It realizes that the quality and extent of this contact will necessarily vary according to location, time and the nature of the participants. Operationally, the establishment of effective parent-home contact will be the responsibility of the principal and his staff but full support should be given by the Education Department at all levels.

Recommendation

The Education Department should encourage secondary schools to make greater use of parent-interview in dealing with student problems.

APPENDICES

1. High School Discipline Questionnaire.
2. School Administrators' Questionnaire.
3. Parents' Questionnaire.
4. Case Study Report.
5. High School Students' Questionnaire.

APPENDIX 1

HIGH SCHOOL DISCIPLINE QUESTIONNAIRE

In response to a feeling of concern among some teachers regarding high school discipline, and at the request of the Director-General of Education acting as Chairman of the Committee Inquiring into High School Discipline, the following questionnaire has been constructed. It is for the use of teaching staff other than the principals.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to allow teachers currently involved in classroom teaching an opportunity to express their views regarding the nature and extent of discipline problems in high schools. Accordingly, you are invited to respond to the questionnaire as thoughtfully and frankly as possible. Your name is not required, though you are asked to provide certain information that might be considered of a personal nature. This information is considered most important as it is hoped to relate the views of the respondents with factors such as age, teaching experience and so on. You may find that not all questions are ideally suited to a clear-cut, unqualified answer. However, please respond to every item, as an incomplete answer would invalidate your response during the analysis of replies. You may comment freely in the space provided at the end of the booklet or attach on separate paper any comment which you feel may be relevant.

Your anticipated co-operation and help with this project is appreciated.

SECTION A Please place a cross in the appropriate box.

1. Age

19–25 yrs. ☐ 1
26–30 yrs. ☐ 2
31–35 yrs. ☐ 3
36–40 yrs. ☐ 4
41–50 yrs. ☐ 5
50 + yrs. ☐ 6

2. Sex

Male ☐ 1
Female ☐ 2

3. Parental Status

Parent ☐ 1
Not a Parent ☐ 2

4. Country of Birth

Australia ☐ 1
United Kingdom ☐ 2
Other ☐ 3

5. Years Resident in Australia

Always ☐ 1
Less than five years ☐ 2
Other ☐ 3

6. Which one of the following responsibilities do you hold in your school?
(Please mark one box only)

Master/Mistress ☐ 1
Master/Mistress Reg. 188 ☐ 2
Senior Master/Mistress ☐ 3
Deputy Principal ☐ 4
Principal Mistress ☐ 5
Other ☐ 6

7. Do you participate in any school extra-curricular activities such as coaching a school team, running a debating club etc.

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

8. What was your length of teacher training?

Less than one year ☐ 1
1 year ☐ 2
2 years ☐ 3
3 years ☐ 4
4 years ☐ 5
More than four years ☐ 6

9. What was your major teacher training orientation?

Secondary ☐ 1
Primary ☐ 2

10. How many years of continuous full-time teaching have you completed?

Less than one year ☐ 1
1–2 years ☐ 2
3–4 years ☐ 3
5–6 years ☐ 4
7–10 years ☐ 5
More than 10 years ☐ 6

11. What is the approximate secondary student enrolment in your school?

0 – 100 students ☐ 1
100 – 400 students ☐ 2
400 – 600 students ☐ 3
600 – 800 students ☐ 4
800 – 1,000 students ☐ 5
1,000 – 1,200 students ☐ 6
1,200 – 1,400 students ☐ 7
More than 1,400 ☐ 8

12. Which subject(s) do you specialize in teaching? *(Please mark one box only).*

English/Social Studies ☐ 1
Science/Mathematics ☐ 2
Languages ☐ 3
Music ☐ 4
Manual Arts/Home Economics ☐ 5
Typing/Commerce ☐ 6
Other/No Speciality ☐ 7

13. In which year level do you teach predominantly?

1st Year ☐ 1
2nd Year ☐ 2
3rd Year ☐ 3
4th Year ☐ 4
5th Year ☐ 5
Several Year Levels ☐ 6

14. Are disciplinary matters a source of worry to you when you teach?

Yes, very much so ☐ 1
Yes, a little ☐ 2
Undecided ☐ 3
No, not at all ☐ 4

15. Which situations do you find potentially most difficult to cope with?

Behaviour problems that occur inside the classroom ☐ 1
Behaviour problems that occur outside the classroom ☐ 2
or It makes little difference where the incidents occur ☐ 3

SECTION B In Section B consider the characteristics of the student(s) who are most disruptive (or potentially disruptive) in any of the classes that you may teach or groups of students with whom you may come in contact.

Please place a cross in one box per question only.

1. Sex of offender(s)

Boy ☐ 1
Girl ☐ 2
Either Boy or Girl ☐ 3

2. Year level of offender(s)

1st Year ☐ 1
2nd Year ☐ 2
3rd Year ☐ 3
4th Year ☐ 4
5th Year ☐ 5

3. Academic standing of offender(s)

Above average ☐ 1
Average ☐ 2
Below average ☐ 3

4. Academic potential of offender(s)

Above average ☐ 1
Average ☐ 2
Below average ☐ 3

5. Socio-economic status of offender(s)

High ☐ 1
Middle ☐ 2
Low ☐ 3

6. During which lesson is the behaviour most likely to occur?
(Please mark one box only).

English/Social Studies ☐ 1
Mathematics/Science ☐ 2
Languages ☐ 3
Music ☐ 4
Manual Arts/Home Economics ☐ 5
Typing/Commerce ☐ 6
Other/None in Particular ☐ 7

SECTION C In Section C, 28 potential behaviour problems are presented. From your experience, please rate each behaviour according to its frequency of occurrence, seriousness, troublesomeness and its pattern of occurrence.

Place a cross in each row of boxes according to the strength of your feeling. For example, suppose you were asked to rate the frequency with which STEALING occurred while you were teaching.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

If you felt that this behaviour occurs very frequently then you would place a tick adjacent to "Occurs very frequently". If you cannot make up your mind you would place a tick in the middle box. In the example above the tick indicates that the behaviour occurs "fairly" infrequently.

In nominating the year level in which the particular behaviour occurs most frequently, please mark one box only.

1. BEHAVIOUR:

Missing a particular classroom lesson.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. BEHAVIOUR:

Making smart comments aloud, asking silly questions, making silly remarks.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. BEHAVIOUR:

Unauthorised borrowing of another student's equipment, materials, etc.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. BEHAVIOUR:

Complying with authority slowly (e.g. moving from a prohibited area only after continual requests from the teacher).

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. BEHAVIOUR:

Half-hearted response to teacher questioning, lack of enthusiasm.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

6. BEHAVIOUR:

Consistent failure to come properly equipped for lessons.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

7. BEHAVIOUR:

Use of an obscenity that can easily be overheard by a teacher.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

8. BEHAVIOUR:

Damaging school property (e.g. carving on a desk).

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ... ...

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

9. BEHAVIOUR:

Tardiness in responding to calls for silence or order.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

	1	2	3
(a)	with boys ☐	girls ☐	both sexes ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. BEHAVIOUR:

Making "smart" comments about a teacher that may be overheard by the teacher as he/she walks down corridors or some part of the school building.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

	1	2	3
(a)	with boys ☐	girls ☐	both sexes ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. BEHAVIOUR:

Non-compliance with school rules (inadequate standards of dress, smoking, trespassing in prohibited area etc.)

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

	1	2	3
(a)	with boys ☐	girls ☐	both sexes ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. BEHAVIOUR:

Completing classroom work of a quality considerably less than the student's capability.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

	1	2	3
(a)	with boys ☐	girls ☐	both sexes ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. BEHAVIOUR:

Telling deliberate lies.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys ☐ 1 girls ☐ 2 both sexes ☐ 3

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

14. BEHAVIOUR:

Cheating.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys ☐ 1 girls ☐ 2 both sexes ☐ 3

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

15. BEHAVIOUR:

Using offensive language when directed to do something by a teacher.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys ☐ 1 girls ☐ 2 both sexes ☐ 3

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

16. BEHAVIOUR:

Creating a disturbance in class (laughing, giggling, whispering, talking, etc.)

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys ☐ 1 girls ☐ 2 both sexes ☐ 3

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

17. BEHAVIOUR:

Giving "smart" or disrespectful answers to a teacher's question.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. BEHAVIOUR:

Boisterousness when engaging in any physical activity (pushing others, scuffling, etc.)

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. BEHAVIOUR:

Refusal to comply with a teacher's direction despite warnings of punishment.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

20. BEHAVIOUR:

Insinuated or direct threats of violence towards the teacher.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1	yr. 2	yr. 3	yr. 4	yr. 5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. BEHAVIOUR:

Obscene writing, obscene drawing, obscene note passing etc.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

22. BEHAVIOUR:

Making frequent petty criticisms or complaints that are unjust.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

23. BEHAVIOUR:

Sullenness.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

24. BEHAVIOUR:

Premeditated non compliance with class or school rules.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

25. BEHAVIOUR:

Withdrawal from classroom activities and unresponsiveness to invitations to participate.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

26. BEHAVIOUR:

Bullying or feuding among students.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

27. BEHAVIOUR:

Ridiculing established school activities.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

28. BEHAVIOUR:

Coming late for lessons and other school appointments.

When I teach, this behaviour..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
Occurs very frequently						Occurs infrequently or never

When I teach I generally treat this behaviour as a ....

	1	2	3	4	5	
very serious misdemeanour						very trivial misdemeanour

When I teach I find that dealing with this behaviour is..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
very troublesome						of no concern

In my experience, I find that this behaviour is becoming..........

	1	2	3	4	5	
more commonplace in classroom						less commonplace in classroom

In my experience this behaviour occurs most frequently:

(a) with boys 1 ☐ girls 2 ☐ both sexes 3 ☐

(b) with students in:

yr. 1 ☐ yr. 2 ☐ yr. 3 ☐ yr. 4 ☐ yr. 5 ☐

APPENDIX 2

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

In response to a feeling of concern among some teachers and administrators regarding high school discipline, and at the request of the Director-General of Education acting as Chairman of the Committee Enquiring into High School Discipline, the following questionnaire has been constructed.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain from school administrators information regarding the nature and extent of disciplinary problems in secondary schools and to discover the relationships between these and certain administrative, organizational, professional and personal variables. You are invited to respond to the questionnaire as thoughtfully and frankly as possible. Your name is not required, though you are asked to provide certain information that might be considered of a personal nature. This information is considered important as it is hoped to relate the views of respondents with factors such as age, teaching experience and so on. You may find that not all questions are ideally suited to a clear-cut, unqualified answer. However, please respond to every item, as an incomplete answer would invalidate your response during the analysis of replies. You may comment freely in the space provided at the end of the booklet or attach on separate paper any comment which you feel may be relevant.

The questionnaire is designed to be answered by Principals and by Principal Mistresses and Deputy Principals. The following indicates the sections to be answered by each of these respondents.

PRINCIPAL	Sections A, B and F.
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL–PRINCIPAL MISTRESS	Sections C and G.
PRINCIPAL – in consultation with the DEPUTY PRINCIPAL and PRINCIPAL MISTRESS	Sections D and E.

When responding to this questionnaire please place a cross in the appropriate box. Place a cross in only one box per question.

Where a question is identified with a asterisk you may wish to qualify your response in the section reserved for your comments towards the back of the booklet.

SECTION A
PERSONAL AND SCHOOL DATA

(To be completed by Principal)

1. Age

Less than 30 years ☐ 1
31–35 years ☐ 2
36–40 years ☐ 3
41–45 years ☐ 4
46–50 years ☐ 5
51–60 years ☐ 6
61–65 years ☐ 7

2. How many years have you been a Principal?

This is my first year ☐ 1
1– 5 years ☐ 2
6–10 years ☐ 3
11–15 years ☐ 4
16–20 years ☐ 5
21 years plus ☐ 6

*3. In how many schools have you been Principal?

One ☐ 1
Two ☐ 2
Three ☐ 3
Four ☐ 4
Five or more ☐ 5

4. **Which of the following best represents the highest academic qualification that you have obtained?**

Teachers' Certificate ☐ 1
Higher Certificate ☐ 2
Diploma or equivalent ☐ 3
Degree/Associateship or equivalent ☐ 4
Honours Degree or equivalent ☐ 5
Higher Degree ☐ 6

5. **Please place a cross in the box which best describes the amount of formal training you have had in Educational Administration?**

No formal training ☐ 1
Some courses as part of H.C. work ☐ 2
Formal University Courses ☐ 3
Formal W.A.I.T. Courses ☐ 4
Other ***(please specify)*** ☐ 5

....

6. **Are you a member of a professional education association?**

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If "Yes", please specify

....

7. **What is the approximate student enrolment in your school?**

1 – 200 ☐ 1
201 – 400 ☐ 2
401 – 600 ☐ 3
601 – 800 ☐ 4
801 –1,000 ☐ 5
1,001 –1,200 ☐ 6
1,201 –1,400 ☐ 7
More than 1,400 ☐ 8

8. **What years does your school include?**

1st to 3rd year ☐ 1
1st to 4th year ☐ 2
1st to 5th year ☐ 3

9. **How many full-time teachers are there in your school?**

10 or fewer ☐ 1
11 – 25 ☐ 2
26 – 35 ☐ 3
36 – 45 ☐ 4
46 – 55 ☐ 5
56 – 65 ☐ 6
66 – 75 ☐ 7
75 + ☐ 8

10. **How many part-time teachers are there in your school?**

0 ☐ 1
1 – 3 ☐ 2
4 – 6 ☐ 3
7 – 10 ☐ 4
11 – 14 ☐ 5
15 + ☐ 6

11. **What was your position last year?**

Principal – over 600 ☐ 1
Principal – under 600 ☐ 2
Deputy Principal ☐ 3
Headmaster, Junior High School 1 ☐ 4
Headmaster, Agricultural Junior High School ☐ 5

12. Do you devote any school time to subject teaching?

I do not teach ☐ 1

One period per week ☐ 2

Two – six periods per week ☐ 3

More than six periods per week ☐ 4

13. How old is the major classroom block in your school?

0 – 3 years ☐ 1

4 – 6 years ☐ 2

7 – 10 years ☐ 3

10 – 30 years ☐ 4

More than 30 years ☐ 5

14. Do you have a Commonwealth funded library or State funded library of equivalent standard?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

15. Do you have a Commonwealth funded science block or State funded science block of equivalent standard?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

16. How many improvised or makeshift rooms (excluding "demountables" or "prefabs") are used for instructional purposes?

Indicate the number in the box provided ☐

17. How many "demountables" and "prefabs" are used for instructional purposes in your school?

Indicate the number in the box provided ☐

18. What percentage of the total enrolment is the upper school enrolment in your school?

0% ☐ 1

0 – 10% ☐ 2

11 – 20% ☐ 3

21 – 30% ☐ 4

31 – 40% ☐ 5

41 – 50% ☐ 6

More than 50% ☐ 7

19. Which best describes the pupils served by your school?

All children of professional and "white collar" workers ☐ 1

Mostly children of professional and "white collar" workers ☐ 2

Children from a general cross section of the community ☐ 3

Mostly children of factory and other "blue collar" workers ☐ 4

All children of factory and "blue collar" workers ☐ 5

Mostly children of rural families ☐ 6

SECTION B

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

(To be completed by the Principal)

The following section is designed to gather information about certain aspects of the organization and operation of your school. In answering the questions please place a cross in the box which you consider best fits your school. Should you wish to comment further on matters raised in this section or should you consider that the questions asked do not fully relate to your school situation please express your views on these matters in the section reserved for your comments at the end of this booklet.

20. Is there a system of prefects in your school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

21. If there is a system of prefects, are they –

freely elected by the students? ☐ 1
nominated by the students but with some form of control by the principal and staff? ☐ 2
selected by the staff and principal? ☐ 3
OR chosen by some other means? ☐ 4

If so, please specify below

....

22. Is there a student council in your school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

23. If there is a student council, are its members –

freely elected by the students? ☐ 1
nominated by the students but with some form of control by the principal and staff? ☐ 2
selected by the staff? ☐ 3
OR chosen by some other means? ☐ 4

If so, please specify below

....

24. What influence does your student organization (prefects or school council) exert over the student body?

It is most influential and respected ☐ 1
It is influential among a large section of the student body ☐ 2
It is influential among a small section of the student body ☐ 3
It is not at all influential ☐ 4
OR The school has no council or prefect system ☐ 5

25. At which year level do you feel that student government has **most** influence?

Year 1 ☐ 1
Year 2 ☐ 2
Year 3 ☐ 3
Year 4 ☐ 4
Year 5 ☐ 5
OR No year level in particular ☐ 6

*26. Do prefects or school council members have any real influence in determining school policy matters other than running school dances, socials etc?

Considerable influence ☐ 1
Some influence ☐ 2
Little influence ☐ 3
No influence ☐ 4
OR The school has no council or system of prefects ☐ 5

*27. Do you find it necessary to veto decisions made by the school council or prefects in matters where you have delegated the responsibility to students?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

28. How frequently do you hold formal staff meetings?
(please specify)

....

29. At formal or informal staff meetings how often is the matter of student discipline raised by staff members?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

30. Are your senior masters holding regular meetings with the staff members under their supervision?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

*31. Does your school operate under a "house system" for the purposes of encouraging school tradition and morale?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

32. Does the "new" system of Year Master (i.e. with emphasis on counselling) operate in your school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If answer is "Yes" give brief details of his duties

....
....

*33. If the Year Master scheme has operated in your school how successful do you think it has been in combating disciplinary problems?

Very successful ☐ 1
Moderately successful ☐ 2
Not successful ☐ 3
Too early to judge ☐ 4
OR There is no Year Master system ☐ 5

34. How many student assemblies of the following types are held in your school during an average school term?
(Write your answer in the box adjacent to each alternative).

Full school assemblies ☐
Separate assemblies for boys and girls ☐
Separate assemblies for upper and lower school students ☐
Separate assemblies for each year level ☐

35. Please place a cross in the box which best describes parent interest in your school?

There is a strong parent interest ☐ 1
There is some parent interest ☐ 2
There is a weak parent interest ☐ 3
There is no parent interest ☐ 4

36. Sometimes a principal (for one reason or another) has difficulty in getting to know his students. In this context how many students do you know "really well" in your school?

0 – 5% ☐ 1
6 – 10% ☐ 2
11 – 20% ☐ 3
21 – 40% ☐ 4
41 – 60% ☐ 5
61 – 80% ☐ 6
81 – 100% ☐ 7

37. Do you have teachers working outside the area of their expertise? If so, please indicate the number in the box provided. ☐

38. In which subject area do you find the most difficulty in providing adequately trained and qualified staff?

English – Social Studies ☐ 1
Mathematics – Science ☐ 2
Languages ☐ 3
Manual Arts – Homes Economics ☐ 4
Typing – Commerce ☐ 5
Physical Education ☐ 6
Other *(please specify)*

....

39. Do you observe staff members while they teach?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

*40. Do you consider that the wearing of school uniforms should be made compulsory (for reasons of discipline as distinct from other social reasons)?

Yes ☐ 1
Uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

*41. Do you insist (as far as possible) on lower school students wearing the school uniform?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

*42. Do you insist (as far as possible) on upper school students wearing the school uniform?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

*43. Do you discriminate between boys and girls regarding your attitude towards enforcing the compulsory wearing of school uniforms?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

*44. Do you enforce rules regarding the length of hair worn by students?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

*45. Do you enforce rules regarding the wearing of beards or side burns by students?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

46. Is there a set of written school rules in your school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

47. How are school rules communicated to staff?

Orally (e.g. staff meetings etc.) ☐ 1
By written means (e.g. notice boards etc.) ☐ 2
Both oral and written ☐ 3
Not communicated ☐ 4

48. How are school rules communicated to students?

Orally (e.g. staff meetings etc.) ☐ 1
By written means (e.g. notice boards etc.) ☐ 2
Both oral and written ☐ 3
Not communicated ☐ 4

*49. Are the reasons for the rules explained to the students?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

*50. Do you distinguish between upper and lower school students with regard to the observance of established school rules?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

51. Does your school offer students a wide choice of club activity?

There is much opportunity for club work ☐ 1
There are several clubs ☐ 2
There are very few clubs ☐ 3
There is no club work ☐ 4

SECTION C

This section is to be completed by the Deputy Principal and the Principal Mistress. There are separate sections for each of these persons.

DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

Please place a cross in the appropriate box

52. (a) Age

Less than 30	☐	1
31 – 35 years	☐	2
36 – 40 years	☐	3
41 – 45 years	☐	4
46 – 50 years	☐	5
51 – 60 years	☐	6
61 – 65 years	☐	7

53. (a) For how many years have you been a Deputy Principal?

1 – 5 years	☐	1
6 – 10 years	☐	2
11 – 15 years	☐	3
16 – 20 years	☐	4
21 years plus	☐	5

54. (a) In how many schools have you been a Deputy Principal?

One	☐	1
Two	☐	2
Three	☐	3
Four	☐	4
Five or more	☐	5

55. (a) Which of the following best represents the highest academic qualification that you have obtained?

Teachers' Certificate	☐	1
Higher Certificate	☐	2
Diploma or equivalent	☐	3
Degree/Associateship or equivalent	☐	4
Honours Degree or equivalent	☐	5
Higher Degree	☐	6

56. (a) Please place a cross in the box which best describes the amount of formal training you have had in educational administration

No formal training	☐	1
Some courses as part of H.C. work	☐	2
Formal university courses	☐	3
Formal W.A.I.T. courses	☐	4

Other *(please specify)*

....

PRINCIPAL MISTRESS

52. (b) Age

Less than 30 years	☐	1
31 – 35 years	☐	2
36 – 40 years	☐	3
41 – 45 years	☐	4
46 – 50 years	☐	5
51 – 60 years	☐	6
61 – 65 years	☐	7

53. (b) For how many years have you been a Principal Mistress?

1 – 5 years	☐	1
6 – 10 years	☐	2
11 – 15 years	☐	3
16 – 20 years	☐	4
21 years plus	☐	5

54. (b) In how many schools have you been a Principal Mistress?

One	☐	1
Two	☐	2
Three	☐	3
Four	☐	4
Five or more	☐	5

55. (b) Which of the following best represents the highest academic qualification that you have obtained?

Teachers' Certificate	☐	1
Higher Certificate	☐	2
Diploma or equivalent	☐	3
Degree/Associateship or equivalent	☐	4
Honours Degree or equivalent	☐	5
Higher Degree	☐	6

56. (b) Please place a cross in the box which best describes the amount of formal training you have had in educational administration.

No formal training	☐	1
Some courses as part of H.C. work	☐	2
Formal university courses	☐	3
Formal W.A.I.T. courses	☐	4

Other *(please specify)*

....

SECTION D

NATURE AND EXTENT OF INDISCIPLINE IN THE SCHOOL

This section is to be filled in by the Principal in consultation with the Deputy Principal and the Principal Mistress.

Disruptive behaviour in the context of this questionnaire refers to behaviour which interferes with the freedom of others to carry on with their work.

57. How often do disciplinary matters which you consider to be of a serious nature occur in your school?

- Very frequently ☐ 1
- Often ☐ 2
- Sometimes ☐ 3
- Seldom ☐ 4
- Never ☐ 5

58. If disciplinary problems of a serious nature do occur in your school, do you feel that you are able to cope with them adequately?

- Yes, in all situations ☐ 1
- No, situations occur which make these difficult to handle ☐ 2
- Only very few cause concern ☐ 3

59. Do you consider that the incidence of serious disruptive disciplinary problems is increasing in your school?

- Yes, the incidence is increasing ☐ 1
- The incidence is fairly stable ☐ 2
- No, the incidence is decreasing ☐ 3

OR

- There are no serious disruptive disciplinary problems ☐ 4

60. Do you consider that the disruptive behaviour most difficult to deal with is found among boys or girls?

- It is found mostly among boys ☐ 1
- It is found mostly among girls ☐ 2
- It is evenly distributed between both groups ☐ 3

61. In what year level do you find male students who are most disruptive and difficult to deal with?

(Please mark one box only).

- First year ☐ 1
- Second year ☐ 2
- Third year ☐ 3
- Fourth year ☐ 4
- Fifth year ☐ 5
- They are found mainly throughout the lower school ☐ 6
- They are found mainly throughout the upper school ☐ 7
- They are evenly distributed throughout the school ☐ 8
- There are no disruptive students ☐ 9

62. In what year level do you find female students who are most disruptive and difficult to deal with?

- First year ☐ 1
- Second year ☐ 2
- Third year ☐ 3
- Fourth year ☐ 4
- Fifth year ☐ 5
- They are found mainly throughout the lower school 6
- They are found mainly throughout the upper school ☐ 7
- They are evenly distributed throughout the school ☐ 8
- There are no disruptive students ☐ 9

63. From whom is the child with a personal problem (e.g. trouble at home) first encouraged to seek advice?

Principal ☐ 1
Deputy Principal/Principal Mistress ☐ 2
Senior Master ☐ 3
Year Master ☐ 4
Form Master (or Tutor) ☐ 5
Guidance Officer/Counsellor ☐ 6
Other *OR* no staff member in particular ☐ 7

---

64. To whom is a student who has misbehaved first referred?

Deputy Principal/Principal Mistress ☐ 1
Senior Master ☐ 2
Year Master ☐ 3
Form Master (or Tutor) ☐ 4
Some other staff member with delegated disciplinary authority ☐ 5

---

65. At what time of the year do you find disruptive problems most frequent?

At the beginning of the year ☐ 1
Towards the end of the school year ☐ 2
Following examination periods ☐ 3
No particular time ☐ 4
Other *(please specify)*

....

** If you consider that there is a definite pattern of misbehaviour would you please describe in the section of this questionnaire set aside for your written comment.*

---

*66. Do you consider that there is a pattern of misbehaviour associated with the weather?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

---

67. In the lower school from what section of the students do most misbehaving students come?

Most come from advanced levels ☐ 1
Most come from intermediate (ordinary and elementary) levels ☐ 2
Most come from basic levels ☐ 3
No level in particular ☐ 4

---

68. Sometimes a student stands out for his repeated misbehaviours and confrontations with school authorities. He is most troublesome for all or nearly all teachers who must deal with him. How many disruptive students of this type are there in your school at the present time?

There is none ☐ 1
1 – 2 ☐ 2
3 – 5 ☐ 3
6 – 10 ☐ 4
11 – 15 ☐ 5
15 or more ☐ 6

---

69. How many students were suspended from your school during 1971?

There were no students suspended ☐ 1
1 – 2 ☐ 2
3 – 5 ☐ 3
6 – 10 ☐ 4
10 or more ☐ 5

** Please give the reasons for the suspensions*

....

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70. In what year level did most of the above suspensions occur?

Year 1 ☐ 1
Year 2 ☐ 2
Year 3 ☐ 3
Year 4 ☐ 4
Year 5 ☐ 5
There were no suspensions ☐ 6

71. Do disruptive behaviour problems occur more frequently within any particular ethnic grouping in your school?

Not confined to any particular ethnic group ☐ 1
Aboriginal children ☐ 2
Children from United Kingdom ☐ 3
European children ☐ 4
Australian born children ☐ 5
Some other ethnic group *(please specify)* ☐ 6
....

72. Do you consider that most serious disciplinary problems in your school occur while children are under instruction or at other times?

During instruction ☐ 1
Outside instruction ☐ 2

OR

They occur equally during and outside instructional situations ☐ 3

73. In your experience, teachers trained in which one of the following places have most difficulty coping with discipline problems?

Western Australia ☐ 1
Other Australian States ☐ 2
United Kingdom ☐ 3
Asia ☐ 4
Other ☐ 5

OR

It makes no difference ☐ 6

74. Do most disciplinary problems occur with teachers who were primary trained or secondary trained?

Primary trained ☐ 1
Secondary trained ☐ 2
No particular group ☐ 3

75. In your experience, do you consider part-time teachers more likely to encounter more problems maintaining classroom discipline than full-time teachers in general?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

76. Are teacher resignations and transfers during the school year a significant factor contributing to disciplinary problems in your school?

Yes ☐ 1
Uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

77. Do most disciplinary problems occur with teachers in certain subject areas?

English ☐ 1
Social Studies ☐ 2
Mathematics/Science ☐ 3
Languages ☐ 4
Music/Speech ☐ 5
Manual Arts/Home Economics ☐ 6
Commerce/Typing ☐ 7
Physical Education ☐ 8
Single Period Subjects (e.g. Human Relations) ☐ 9
Other/None in particular ☐ 10

78. Do the majority of disciplinary problems occur with male or female teachers?

Mainly with male teachers ☐ 1
Mainly with female teachers ☐ 2
With either male or female ☐ 3

*79. Have you a school policy for assisting teachers who have difficulty coping with disciplinary problems or who are inexperienced?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

80. Do teachers approach you wanting advice or action regarding matters of student discipline?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

81. Do you (the Principal) personally deal with cases of student indiscipline?

Very frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

*82. Have you delegated authority to administer corporal punishment to staff members other than the Deputy Principal?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

83. Have staff members (other than the Deputy Principal) approached you for permission to administer corporal punishment?

This has occurred quite often ☐ 1
There have been a few cases ☐ 2
This has never occurred ☐ 3

SECTION E

To be filled in by the Principal in consultation with the Deputy Principal and Principal Mistress.

This section seeks to identify particular problem areas and to determine the cause of indiscipline in your school.

Two rating scales will be used. With the first you are asked to rate the degree of difficulty that you find in dealing with particular types of discipline problems. With the second you are asked to estimate the importance of various factors which may contribute to disciplinary problems in your school. An illustration of how to fill in this section is detailed below.

For example, suppose you were asked to rate how difficult you found dealing with problems of **vandalism**.

Very difficult to deal with	1	2	3	4	5	6	☒	Easy to deal with

If you felt that "vandalism" was moderately difficult to deal with you might place a cross in box 2 or 3. If you felt that dealing with instances of vandalism presented no problems then you would place a cross in box 7 as shown above.

Which type of disciplinary offence do you find most difficult to deal with? Please rate each type of indiscipline on the seven point scale below.

	Very difficult to deal with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Easy to deal with
1. Open defiance of teacher authority, disrespect, etc.									
2. Obscenities, etc.									
3. Bullying, cruelty, etc.									
4. Theft, unauthorised borrowing, etc.									
5. Creating disturbances in the classroom									
6. Apathy, passive noncompliance, etc.									
7. Sexual offences									
8. Other *(please specify)*									

Please rate the importance of each of the following potential causes of indiscipline on the 7 point scale.

	A major cause of disciplinary problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not related to discipline problems
1. Low educational aspirations have been set by the student's home environment.									
2. Both parents are working and the student is unsupervised for long periods of time in an empty home.									
3. The student is neglected by parents and has nobody to approach for comfort, advice and guidance.									
4. The student does not receive adequate guidance or supervision at home and is allowed to do much as he likes.									
5. The student indulges in antisocial or delinquent behaviour outside of school and this carries over into school situation.									
6. The student comes from broken home (e.g. widow, divorcee, etc.)									
7. Some teachers are poorly prepared (e.g. poor supervision).									
8. The professional incompetence of teachers.									
9. Teachers with personality defects or very unusual personal characteristics (e.g. immature habits, etc., outlandish dress, poor speech, etc).									
10. Teachers who have poor professional attitudes.									
11. Students come from culturally different background (e.g. foreign parents, recent arrivals to this country, etc.)									
12. Students have a poor command of English.									
13. Student suffers from physical defect.									
14. The student feels socially inferior to rest of students (e.g. cannot match dress, pocket money, cannot afford books, etc., cannot afford school fees, etc.)									

	A major cause of disciplinary problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not related to discipline problems
15. The student is educationally retarded and in "basic" groups for most subjects (or the equivalent of basic if in upper school).									
16. Some teachers show poor attitude towards students in basic classes.									
17. The values held by the children differ markedly from those held by staff members of school (e.g. lower classes versus middle class).									
18. The district lacks sporting and/or recreational facilities for children.									
19. The curriculum does not challenge or interest children.									
20. The design of the school is such that it leads to disciplinary problems (e.g. too spread out and children must talk long distances between periods).									
21. Teaching methods are unsuitable, monotonous, etc. and often not suited to subject, needs of children, etc.									
22. Instability in staffing and rapid staff turnover.									
23. There are too many female or male teachers (i.e. there is an imbalance).									
24. There are insufficient subject specialists and teachers must teach outside of the area of their competence.									
25. Visiting teachers (e.g. clergy, options, etc.) have poor control and this carries over to other classes.									
26. There is a staff shortage caused by teacher absenteeism.									
27. Some sections of the mass media promote values contrary to those encouraged by the school.									
28. Excessive mobility during lesson change over.									
29. The composition of classes is consistently changing (i.e. students miss the stable class identity).									

	A major cause of disciplinary problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not related to discipline problems
30. The lack of vocational relevance of certain courses.									
31. Lower school students no longer have the goal of an external examination.									
32. Large class sizes.									
33. Lack of teaching experience.									
34. Inadequate student groupings stemming from school timetable problems.									
35. Emotional disturbances in the student.									
36. Deficiences in teacher training.									
37. Students today are more aware of the limitations of a teacher's authority.									
38. Cultural and ethnic differences between non-Australian teachers and students (e.g. the teacher has a poor command of English).									
39. The size of the school.									
40. Single sex groupings of students.									

C. Please list below in order of importance those steps which you consider should be taken to reduce the incidence of disruptive behaviour in Government secondary schools. These may include additional staff, measures of school organization, curriculum developments, teaching methods, etc.

D. Please add any further comment which you believe may be of use in determining the nature, extent and cause of disruptive behaviour in secondary schools.

SECTION G

This section is reserved for the comment of Deputy-Principals and Principal Mistresses. Would you please give your opinion regarding matters that have been raised in this questionnaire and indicate your views on what remedial measures need to be adopted to assist schools to overcome serious disciplinary problems. Please feel free to comment on any aspect of school organization and operation and upon any other matters that you feel may be related to the question of discipline in schools.

APPENDIX 3

PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Earlier this year, at the request of the Director-General of Education, a Committee was established to enquire into discipline in Western Australian high schools. The Committee, which attaches considerable importance to the views of parents, would be grateful if you would give your opinion on certain aspects of secondary education.

There is no need to place your name on the questionnaire as the Committee is interested in the responses of parents not as individuals but as members of a group. Please be as frank as possible in answering.

The following instructions should prove helpful.

1. There are no right and wrong answers. Most of the questions that follow can be answered by making a cross ☒ in the box next to the most appropriate reply to a question. Nearly all the questions will be answered by **one cross only.**
2. When responding, parents with more than one child attending high school should consider **only the child who brings home the questionnaire from school.** This is to help you answer questions by concentrating on a single child.
3. The questionnaire may be filled in by either parent. The parent who fills in the questionnaire should try to see that the views expressed are shared by the other parent.

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1. Please state the sex of the child who brings the questionnaire home from school.

☐ 1. Male
☐ 2. Female

2. In what year level is this child?

☐ 1. 1st Year
☐ 2. 2nd Year
☐ 3. 3rd Year
☐ 4. 4th Year
☐ 5. 5th Year

3. What is the father's age group?

☐ 1. 30 years or less
☐ 2. 31 years to 40 years
☐ 3. 41 years to 50 years
☐ 4. 51 years to 64 years
☐ 5. 65 years and over
☐ 6. *This question does not apply.*

4. What is the mother's age group?

☐ 1. 30 years or less
☐ 2. 31 years to 40 years
☐ 3. 41 years to 50 years
☐ 4. 51 years to 64 years
☐ 5. 65 years and over
☐ 6. *This question does not apply.*

5. Have either you or your spouse emigrated to Australia from another country?

☐ 1. No
☐ 2. Yes, from United Kingdom
☐ 3. Yes, from northern Europe
☐ 4. Yes, from southern Europe
☐ 5. Yes, from Asia
☐ 6. Other *(please specify)*..........
....

6. How recently have either you or your spouse emigrated to Australia?

☐ 1. All members of my family have always lived in Australia
☐ 2. 1 – 5 years ago
☐ 3. 6 – 10 years ago
☐ 4. More than 10 years ago

7. Please place a cross in the box which best describes the occupation of the father *(or mother if father is deceased or separated)*

☐ 1. Business owner, farmer, contractor, etc.
☐ 2. Manual worker (truck driver, labourer, etc.)
☐ 3. Teacher, lecturer, social worker, etc.
☐ 4. Clerical-sales (insurance, real estate, government department, bank teller, etc.)
☐ 5. Tradesman (electrician, hairdresser, mechanic, baker, etc)
☐ 6. Professional-managerial (doctor, headmaster, lawyer, accountant, clergy, professor, etc.)

8. If your child were capable would you like your child to finish 5th year high school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

9. Would you make your child stay at secondary school even though he/she wished to leave?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

10. Do you usually attend parents and citizens' meetings at the school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No

11. If you do not attend parents and citizens' meetings why don't you?

☐ 1. I am working
☐ 2. I am too busy
☐ 3. I am not interested
☐ 4. I don't think anything very useful comes out of parents and citizens' meetings
☐ 5. Other reasons *(please specify)*

....

12. Have you spoken with the Principal about your child's work at school this year?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No

13. Have you spoken with a teacher about your child's work at school this year?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No

14. Would you like more details about your child's behaviour at school put on the school report or do you think that there is enough information already?

☐ 1. There is sufficient information already
☐ 2. More information is needed
☐ 3. Uncertain

15. Will your child most likely finish 5th year high school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

16. If your child will not finish 5th year high school why is this so?

☐ 1. He does not have the ability
☐ 2. The family cannot afford to keep him at school
☐ 3. He does not want to stay at school
OR ☐ 4. *Some other reason*

....

17. Do you think that parents should help decide what books students read at school or should this matter be left to the Principal and staff?

☐ 1. Parents should help
☐ 2. Left to Principal and staff
☐ 3. Uncertain

18. Do you think that parents should have a say in the making of school rules or should this matter be left to the Principal and staff?

☐ 1. Parents should help
☐ 2. Left to Principal and staff
☐ 3. Uncertain

19. Do you think that parents should help decide what subjects should be taught in schools or should this matter be left to the Principal and staff?

☐ 1. Parents should help
☐ 2. Left to Principal and staff
☐ 3. Uncertain

20. Do you think that parents should be notified whenever their child has seriously misbehaved at school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

21. Would you like to meet and talk with your child's teachers more than you are doing now?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

If you would like to talk more with the teachers, why are you not able to do so now?

....

....

....

....

22. How well do you know about your child's progress at school?

☐ 1. Very well
☐ 2. Fairly well
☐ 3. I am not sure how my child is getting on

23. Does your school encourage you to visit and talk about your child's progress?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

24. Is your child currently studying the subjects which you think will be of most value to him/her?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

If your child is not currently studying the subjects you think he/she should be, why is this so?

....

....

25. Are there some subjects which you would like your child to study but which are not available at your school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

If there are some subjects that are not available, which are they?

....

....

26. Do you think that schools should provide sex education?

☐ 1. Yes, beginning in early primary school
☐ 2. Yes, beginning in late primary school
☐ 3. Yes, beginning in lower secondary school
☐ 4. Yes, beginning in upper secondary school
☐ 5. Uncertain
☐ 6. No, there should be no sex education in schools

27. Do you think that schools should provide more extra curricular activities *(excursions, school socials, etc.)*

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

28. Do you think that your child should receive written homework?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

29. How much time do you think your child ought to spend on his/her homework each night?

☐ 1. None at all
☐ 2. Less than half hour a day
☐ 3. About half hour a day
☐ 4. About one hour a day
☐ 5. About one and a half hours a day
☐ 6. About two hours a day
☐ 7. Two or more hours a day

30. Does your child have a place where he/she may study privately at home without interruption?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No

31. Which of the following do you think is the more important aim of the school?

☐ 1. Help your child get a job after leaving school

☐ 2. Help your child understand and enjoy life apart from the job which he/she gets after leaving school

☐ 3. Undecided

32. Do you think that in most cases 14 year old students who are not doing well at school should be encouraged to leave and get a job?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

33. While at school, does your child receive enough advice about career opportunities?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

34. Do you think that discipline in schools is too strict or too lenient?

☐ 1. Too strict
☐ 2. About right
☐ 3. Too lenient

35. Do you think that students who frequently misbehave in a serious manner should be suspended from school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

36. Do you agree with the use of the cane on the hand for high school boys who have committed a serious offence?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

37. Do you agree with the use of the cane on the hand for high school girls who have committed a serious offence?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

38. Would you like your child made exempt from corporal punishment at school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

39. Has your child ever been punished at school this year in a way that you do not approve?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

If your child has been punished in a way that you do not approve, how was your child punished?

....

....

40. Do you think that the Principal should be able to suspend students guilty of a serious misdemeanour?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

41. Do you think that it is **desirable** for students in 1st to 3rd year to wear school uniforms?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

42. Do you think that for students in 1st to 3rd year that the wearing of school uniforms should be made **compulsory**?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

43. Do you think that it is **desirable** for students in 4th and 5th year to wear school uniforms?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

44. Do you think that for students in 4th and 5th year the wearing of school uniforms should be made **compulsory**?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

45. Do you think that the Principal of a high school should be able to insist that boys wear their hair a certain length?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

46. Do you think that **students** ought to have more say about what goes on in school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

47. Do you think that **student councils** should be able to play an increasing role in the government of the school?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

48. Do you think that at school students should be allowed to read and distribute newspapers and pamphlets which criticize the way schools are run?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

49. If your child misbehaves at school are you happy with the way the school deals with the matter?

☐ 1. Yes, in all cases
☐ 2. Yes, in most cases
☐ 3. Uncertain
☐ 4. No, not in many cases
OR ☐ 5. *This question does not apply to me*

50. Do you think that social workers *(people who make contact between the home and the school)* are needed in schools?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

51. Do you think that medical attendants are needed in schools?

☐ 1. Yes
☐ 2. No
☐ 3. Uncertain

52. Are you satisfied with the type of education that your child is receiving at school?

☐ 1. Yes, very satisfied
☐ 2. Yes, fairly satisfied
☐ 3. Uncertain
☐ 4. No, fairly dissatisfied
☐ 5. No, very dissatisfied

If you are not satisfied, why is this so?

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In the space below please comment on any aspect of high school discipline and operation that you wish.

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APPENDIX 4

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Parliament Place,
West Perth, 6005
Western Australia.

13th July, 1972

Dear Parent,

As a result of approaches made to the Education Department by the State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia a Committee was formed to investigate the matters of high school discipline and to recommend any measures that it considered would be necessary to reduce disciplinary problems. This Committee contains representatives from the Parents and Citizens' Federation, the Principals' Association, the Principal Mistresses' Association, practising teachers, The Teachers' Union and the Education Department.

The Committee believes that the views of parents are very important and would like to take the opinions of parents into account when it makes any recommendation. For this reason a questionnaire has been prepared to be answered by parents.

It would be too costly and take too long to ask every parent with children at high school to fill in a questionnaire. Instead a number of parents have been chosen at random from each high school. Your name has been chosen purely by chance.

The questionnaire contains 54 questions. The Committee considers that all of them are necessary. To exclude certain questions would mean that valuable information is lost. Please answer all the questions. Failure to do so may cause a distorted picture of parent opinion to emerge when the questionnaires are analysed.

There is no need to place your name on the questionnaire. Your complete anonymity is guaranteed. When the questionnaire is completed seal it in the envelope provided and have your child return it to the school. The envelope will not be opened until it reaches the Committee at the Education Department's Head Office.

Some parents may have more than one child in high school. You may have different views about the type of education each child is receiving. To make it easier for you to fill in this questionnaire consider only the child who brings the questionnaire home from school. Each question then relates to what happens to this particular child in your family. If you have some views about the type of secondary education being received by other children in your family you may write these down at the end of the questionnaire in the section reserved for your comments. Should the child be living with a guardian then the guardian may fill in the questionnaire on behalf of the parent.

Please return the questionnaire to your school within a week of receiving it. The sooner it is received the sooner the Committee can start analysing the views of parents.

May I take this opportunity of thanking you in anticipation of your support for this project.

Yours faithfully,

H. W. Dettman,
DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF EDUCATION

COMMITTEE ENQUIRING INTO HIGH SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

CASE STUDY REPORT

A. SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

1. What is the approximate secondary student enrolment in this school?

0 – 100 students ☐ 1
100 – 400 students ☐ 2
400 – 600 students ☐ 3
600 – 800 students ☐ 4
800 – 1,000 students ☐ 5
1,000 – 1,200 students ☐ 6
1,200 – 1,400 students ☐ 7
More than 1,400 ☐ 8

2. Is the school metropolitan or country?

Metropolitan ☐ 1
Country ☐ 2

3. What is the socio-economic background of the district in which the school is located?

High ☐ 1
Mixed High and Middle ☐ 2
Middle ☐ 3
Mixed Low and Middle ☐ 4
Low ☐ 5
OR Mixed High, Low and Middle ☐ 6

4. How is the school classified?

Senior High School ☐ 1
High School ☐ 2
Junior High School Class I ☐ 3
Junior High School Class II ☐ 4

B. SUBJECT IDENTIFICATION – GENERAL

5. Number (Office Use Only) ☐☐☐

6. Age

12 ☐ 1
13 ☐ 2
14 ☐ 3
15 ☐ 4
16 ☐ 5
17 ☐ 6
18 ☐ 7
More than 18 ☐ 8

7. Sex

Male ☐ 1
Female ☐ 2

8. Religion

Attends Church Services regularly or is a member of a church youth group ☐ 1
OR Has no practising religious affiliation ☐ 2

9. Number of years resident in Australia?

Less than one year
1 year ☐ 1
2 years ☐ 2
3 – 4 years ☐ 3
5 – 6 years ☐ 4
7 – 10 years ☐ 5
More than 10 years including all one's life ☐ 6

(b) Are the parents separated?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

16. If the answer to question 15 is "yes", with whom does the child live?

Mother ☐ 1
Father ☐ 2
Guardian/Foster Parent ☐ 3
Institution ☐ 4
Unknown ☐ 5

17. How would you rate the economic situation of the family?

Wealthy ☐ 1
Above average ☐ 2
Average ☐ 3
Below average ☐ 4
Poor ☐ 5

18. Does your mother (or female guardian) have a job outside your home?

Yes, full-time ☐ 1
Yes, part-time ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

19. Does either parent or guardian voluntarily visit the school?

Frequently ☐ 1
Often ☐ 2
Sometimes ☐ 3
Seldom ☐ 4
Never ☐ 5

20. If the parent does visit the school, is the purpose of the visit usually to –

Complain ☐ 1
Seek Advice ☐ 2
Other ☐ 3

21. Number of brothers and sisters?

No brothers or sisters ☐ 1
1 ☐ 2
2 ☐ 3
3 ☐ 4
4 ☐ 5
5 ☐ 6
6 ☐ 7
7 ☐ 8
More than 7 ☐ 9

22. Is either parent or guardian at home when school finishes?

Yes, usually ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

D. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDENT

23. Does the student show any evidence of malnutrition?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

10. Do both parents speak English at home?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

11. Country of origin of the student?

Australian ☐ 1
United Kingdom ☐ 2
Northern Europe ☐ 3
Southern Europe ☐ 4
Asia ☐ 5
Other ☐ 6

If "Other" please specify.............

....

C. FAMILY BACKGROUND

12. Parents' occupations (specify)

Father...

....

Mother..

....

Rate the occupation of the major breadwinner on a five point scale.

Low Social Status ☐ 1
☐ 2
Middle Social Status ☐ 3
☐ 4
High Social Status ☐ 5
Unknown ☐ 6

13. How many years of schooling did the student's father complete?

Did not complete Primary School ☐ 1
Completed Primary School only ☐ 2
Completed some High School but not the Junior Certificate ☐ 3
Completed the Junior Certificate or its equivalent ☐ 4
Completed the Leaving Certificate or its equivalent ☐ 5
Completed some Tertiary education ☐ 6
Unknown ☐ 7

14. How many years of schooling did the student's mother complete?

Did not complete Primary School ☐ 1
Completed Primary School only ☐ 2
Completed some High School but not the Junior Certificate ☐ 3
Completed the Junior Certificate or its equivalent ☐ 4
Completed the Leaving Certificate or its equivalent ☐ 5
Completed some Tertiary education ☐ 6
Unknown ☐ 7

15. (For question 15 respond to part (a) OR part (b))

(a) Are the parents divorced?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

24. Has the student ever been committed to a social institution?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

25. Has the student ever been referred to a psychologist (or school guidance officer) for special testing or examination?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If "Yes" please specify..................

....

....

26. Does the student have any history of trouble with the police?

Yes ☐ 1
No (or not known) ☐ 2

If "Yes" please specify..................

....

....

27. Which of the following is owned by the student's family?

Television set

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

Telephone

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

Car

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

28. Does the student own his own car?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

29. Does the student mix with a group of students which does have access to a vehicle?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

30. Does the child have a pronounced accent?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

31. (a) Does the student have any physical deformities or unusual physical characteristics (e.g. overweight, etc.)

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If "Yes", please specify..................

....

(b) If "Yes" does the student seem self-conscious of these deformities?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If "Yes", please specify..................

....

32. Does the student have any characteristics of dress or grooming which make him different from the majority of students in his year in school (e.g. beard, outlandish dress)?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

If "Yes", please specify..................

....

E. SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

33. Year level

1st year ☐ 1
2nd year ☐ 2
3rd year ☐ 3
4th year ☐ 4
4th year terminal ☐ 5
5th year ☐ 6

34. Has the student repeated a year of schooling?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

35. Is the student currently repeating a year of schooling?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

36. How many Primary and Secondary schools has the student attended (both within Australia and Overseas)?

1 ☐ 1
2 ☐ 2
3 ☐ 3
4 ☐ 4
5 ☐ 5
More than 5 ☐ 6

37. Indicate the results of "individual" and "group" administered I.Q. results where available. Please specify the name of the test administered.

Individual ☐☐☐
Test...
Group ☐☐☐
Test...

If no information is available, please leave blank.

38. In broad terms how would you regard the student's course of study?

Academically oriented (Leaving to Matriculation) ☐ 1
Trade/Commercial Orientation ☐ 2
Neither of the above ☐ 3

39. With regard for the student's "academic potential" how would you regard his current school achievement?

Exceptional Achievement ☐ 1
Satisfactory Achievement ☐ 2
Under Achievement ☐ 3

40. Current achievement status of the student. Indicate the subjects currently being studied and the student's approximate standing in each subject (i.e. below average, average, above average).

Subject Standing

1 ....
2 ....
3 ....
4 ....
5 ....
6 ....
7 ....
8 ....
9 ....

41. Does the student display any particular interests in school activities whilst at school (i.e. sporting teams, cadets, clubs or interest in a particular school subject)?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
If "Yes", please specify................
....

42. Does the student excel in any sport while at school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
If "Yes", please specify................
....

43. Does the student excel in any activity (judged worthwhile by the community) outside the school?

Yes ☐ 1
No (or not known) ☐ 2
If "Yes", please specify................
....

44. Does the parent or guardian show concern for the student's scholastic achievement (by contacting the school, providing learning materials, etc.)?

Frequently ☐ 1
Sometimes ☐ 2
Seldom ☐ 3
Never ☐ 4

45. What are the educational aspirations of the student?

Leave school as soon as possible and seek employment ☐ 1
Leave school at the end of the 3rd year and seek employment ☐ 2
Leave school at the end of the 4th year and seek employment ☐ 3
Leave school at the end of the 5th year and seek employment ☐ 4
Proceed on to tertiary education ☐ 5
No aspiration to continue school or obtain employment ☐ 6

46. Did the student come to the school with an unsatisfactory primary school report regarding the standard of his achievement?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

47. Did the student come to the school with a known reputation as a "troublemaker"?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Unknown ☐ 3

F. NATURE OF THE BEHAVIOUR

48. Is the misbehaviour consistently of one type, or does it cover a whole range of offences? (e.g. Does the behaviour concern itself only with questions of appearance and dress, or is it a more general question?)

One type of behaviour ☐ 1
A range of behaviours ☐ 2

49. Does the behaviour occur primarily –

in the classroom ☐ 1

in some other part of the school ☐ 2

OR not specifically in either location ☐ 3

50. Does the behaviour occur primarily with male or female teachers?

Male ☐ 1

Female ☐ 2

OR not especially with either sex ☐ 3

51. Does the behaviour occur primarily under the supervision of one or two particular teachers?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

52. Has the student consistently offended with these types of behaviour since he began high school?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

53. Does the misbehaviour occur primarily with teachers of a certain age group?

Younger teachers ☐ 1

Older teachers ☐ 2

There is no pattern ☐ 3

54. How would you describe the nature of the student misbehaviour?

Apathy, withdrawal, non participation ☐ 1

Consistent petty offences (e.g. slow compliance with rules) ☐ 2

Anti-social acts (e.g. theft, fighting) ☐ 3

Deliberate confrontation with authority ☐ 4

Other ☐ 5

If "Other" please specify...............

....

G. GENERAL COMMENTS

Feel free in this section to explore any relevant aspect. Where possible try to detail the student's motives for his misbehaviour. The headings below are for your guidance.

1. **FAMILY POSITION**

Children Name					
Age					
Grade or Occupation					
School					

2. SCHOOL HISTORY

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....

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3. IS THE CHILD A PROBLEM AT HOME?

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4. HOW DOES THE FAMILY TREAT THE CHILD?

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....
....
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....
....

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5. WHAT ARE THE FAMILY LIVING CONDITIONS?

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....
....
....
....
....
....
....

6. HOW DOES THE CHILD SPEND HIS LEISURE TIME?

7. IS THE STUDENT SUITABLY ACCOMMODATED AT SCHOOL?

8. HAS THE STUDENT HAD CONSISTENT CONFRONTATIONS WITH PARTICULAR STAFF MEMBERS?

9. HAVE YOU (THE GUIDANCE OFFICER) BEEN INVOLVED WITH THE STUDENT BEFORE THIS CASE STUDY?

10. HAVE POSITIVE METHODS AND REWARDS BEEN USED TO MODIFY THE STUDENT'S BEHAVIOUR?

11. HAS THE STUDENT'S RELATIONSHIPS (BOTH INSIDE AND OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL) WITH OTHER STUDENTS AND PERSONS CONTRIBUTED TO HIS MISBEHAVIOUR?

APPENDIX 5

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

In response to an increasing interest among students, parents and educators about conditions in high schools a questionnaire has been prepared which will give you an opportunity to present your views about the type of education your school is providing. This will allow educators to take your views into consideration when they make changes to the way schools are run.

You do not have to put your name on the questionnaire. Nobody will try and trace the answers given in the questionnaire back to the person who wrote them. No one in your school will ever see your answers. The reason for this is to allow you to be as frank as possible and to give freely the answer that is in your mind.

Remember, this is not a test. There are no right and wrong answers. Most of the questions that follow can be answered by making a cross ☒ next to the most appropriate reply to a question. Nearly all the questions will be answered by **one cross only**. The numbers next to the suggested replies to the questions are to help with the processing of answers.

The questionnaire is in two parts. Part One is mainly about yourself, your home and your friends. Part Two is about your school. There will be a rest after you have finished the first section. Do not start to read the second section until you are told.

---

1. Are you a male or a female?

Male ☐ 1
Female ☐ 2

2. How old were you on your last birthday?

13 or younger ☐ 1
14 ☐ 2
15 ☐ 3
16 ☐ 4
17 ☐ 5
18 ☐ 6
19 or older ☐ 7

3. In what year level are you?

1st year ☐ 1
2nd year ☐ 2
3rd year ☐ 3
4th year ☐ 4
5th year ☐ 5

4. For how long have you lived in Australia?

Less than one year ☐ 1
One year ☐ 2
Two years ☐ 3
Three–four years ☐ 4
Five–six years ☐ 5
Six–ten years ☐ 6
More than ten years including all one's life ☐ 7

5. Where were you born?

Australia ☐ 1
United Kingdom ☐ 2
Northern Europe ☐ 3
Southern Europe ☐ 4
Asia ☐ 5
Other ☐ 6

Education Department of W.A. 1972

6. Where have you spent most of your life? *(Give your best estimate if you are not sure.)*

On a farm ☐ 1
In a small town (less than 3,000 people) ☐ 2
In a large town (more than 3,000 people) ☐ 3
In a suburb of a large city ☐ 4
In the city itself ☐ 5

7. How many people live in your home, including yourself, parents, brothers, sisters, relatives, and others who live with you?

Two ☐ 1
Three ☐ 2
Four ☐ 3
Five ☐ 4
Six ☐ 5
Seven ☐ 6
Eight ☐ 7
Nine ☐ 8
Ten or more ☐ 9

8. How many brothers and sisters live at home with you? *(Include step-brothers and step-sisters and half-brothers and half-sisters, if any.)*

None ☐ 1
One ☐ 2
Two ☐ 3
Three ☐ 4
Four ☐ 5
Five ☐ 6
Six ☐ 7
Seven ☐ 8
Eight ☐ 9
Nine or more ☐ 10

9. How many of your **older** brothers and sisters left high school before reaching fifth year?

None ☐ 1
One ☐ 2
Two ☐ 3
Three ☐ 4
Four ☐ 5
Five ☐ 6
Six or more ☐ 7
I have no older brothers or sisters ☐ 8

10. How much schooling did your **father** complete?

He did not go past primary school ☐ 1
He did not go past third year high school ☐ 2
He reached fifth year high school ☐ 3
He went to a university or teachers' college ☐ 4
OR I do not know ☐ 5

11. How much schooling did your **mother** complete?

She did not go past primary school ☐ 1
She did not go past third year high school ☐ 2
She reached fifth year high school ☐ 3
She went to a university or teachers' college ☐ 4
OR I do not know ☐ 5

12. Do both parents speak English at home?

Yes, both speak English ☐ 1
My father does not speak English ☐ 2
My mother does not speak English ☐ 3
Neither my mother nor father speak English ☐ 4
OR I do not live with my mother or father ☐ 5

13. Does your mother have a job outside the home?

Yes, she has a full-time job ☐ 1
Yes, she has a part-time job ☐ 2
No, she does not have a job ☐ 3
OR I am not able to answer this question ☐ 4

14. Is either of your parents or some other adult nearly always home when you come home from school?

Yes, nearly always ☐ 1
Yes, sometimes ☐ 2
No, hardly ever ☐ 3
OR Never ☐ 4

15. Does your mother employ someone to help in the home?

Yes, full-time help ☐ 1
Yes, part-time help ☐ 2
No ☐ 3
OR I am not able to answer this question ☐ 4

16. Does anyone at home usually tell you to do your homework or ask whether you have done it?

Yes, almost every day ☐ 1
Yes, almost once or twice a week ☐ 2
Yes, a few times a month ☐ 3
Yes, now and again ☐ 4
No, never ☐ 5

17. Does anyone at home help you with your lessons and homework?

Yes, whenever I ask ☐ 1
Sometimes they help when I ask ☐ 2
No, they are not interested ☐ 3
No, they would like to but my homework is too difficult for them ☐ 4

18. How much time do you usually spend on homework?

None at all ☐ 1
Less than ½ hour a day ☐ 2
About ½ hour a day ☐ 3
About 1 hour a day ☐ 4
About 1½ hours a day ☐ 5
About 2 hours a day ☐ 6
Three or more hours a day ☐ 7

19. Do you discuss school work with those at home?

Yes, almost every day ☐ 1
Yes, once or twice a week ☐ 2
Yes, a few times a month ☐ 3
Yes, it happens now and again ☐ 4
No, never ☐ 5

20. Does anyone of those at home ring up, visit or write to any of your teachers?

Yes, often ☐ 1
Yes, sometimes ☐ 2
Yes, it happens now and again ☐ 3
No, never ☐ 4
I do not know ☐ 5

21. Does anyone of those at home go to parents' meeting (such as the Parents and Citizens' Association) or parents' days at school?

Yes, every time ☐ 1
Yes, sometimes ☐ 2
Yes, but very rarely ☐ 3
No, never ☐ 4

22. If you have been punished at school do you tell either of your parents?

Yes, always ☐ 1
Yes, usually ☐ 2
Yes, sometimes ☐ 3
No, never or hardly ever ☐ 4

23. How good a student do your parents want you to be in school?

One of the best students in my class ☐ 1
Above the middle of the class ☐ 2
In the middle of my class ☐ 3
Just good enough to get by ☐ 4
Do not know ☐ 5

24. How much education do your parents want you to have?

Leave school before I turn 15 ☐ 1
Leave school when I turn 15 ☐ 2
Leave school after third year ☐ 3
Finish my Leaving ☐ 4
Go to technical college, nursing or business school after I leave high school ☐ 5
Go to University, W.A.I.T., or Teachers' College ☐ 6

25. How would you describe your family?

Very wealthy ☐ 1
Above average income ☐ 2
Average income ☐ 3
Below average income ☐ 4
Poor ☐ 5

26. Place a cross in the box which best describes the occupation of your father (or mother if your father has died or is separated)?

A job like that of a –

doctor, professor, lawyer, accountant, clergyman, architect, etc. ☐ 1
business owner, farmer, contractor, etc. ☐ 2
teacher, lecturer, social worker, etc. ☐ 3
insurance salesman, real estate salesman, Government Department clerk, bank teller, etc. ☐ 4
electrician, hairdresser, mechanic, baker, etc. ☐ 5
truck driver, labourer, machinist, etc. ☐ 6
OR I do not know ☐ 7

27. Place a cross in the box next to each item if you have it in your home.

Television set ☐
Telephone ☐
Record player, hi fi, or stereo ☐
Dictionary ☐
An encyclopaedia set ☐
Car ☐
Daily newspaper ☐

28. How many books are there in your home?

None or very few (0–9) ☐ 1
A few (10–24) ☐ 2
A bookcase full ☐ 3
More than a bookcase full ☐ 4

29. On an average school day, how much time do you spend watching television outside of school?

None or almost none ☐ 1
About ½ hour a day ☐ 2
About 1 hour a day ☐ 3
About 1½ hours a day ☐ 4
About 2 hours a day ☐ 5
About 3 hours a day ☐ 6
Four or more hours a day ☐ 7

30. How often do you usually read news items in the daily newspapers?

Every day ☐ 1
A couple of days a week ☐ 2
Once a week ☐ 3
I seldom or never read daily papers ☐ 4

31. Over the weekend, on an average, how much time do you usually spend listening to music on the radio?

None at all ☐ 1
Less than ½ hour a day ☐ 2
About ½ hour a day ☐ 3
About 1 hour a day ☐ 4
About 1½ hours a day ☐ 5
About 2 or more hours a day ☐ 6

32. How many comics do you usually read ("The Phantom", "True Romance", etc.)?

Never or hardly ever read comics ☐ 1
Read less than 1 comic a week ☐ 2
Read 1 comic a week ☐ 3
Read 2 comics a week ☐ 4
Read more than 2 comics a week ☐ 5

33. How many books did you read last month? *(Do not count school books or magazines.)*

None ☐ 1
One book ☐ 2
Two books ☐ 3
Three–four books ☐ 4
Five or more books ☐ 5

34. How often do you usually go to church?

Never or hardly ever ☐ 1
Once or twice a year ☐ 2
About once a month ☐ 3
About twice a month ☐ 4
About once a week ☐ 5
About twice a week or more ☐ 6

35. Do you smoke?

No ☐ 1
Yes, but only occasionally ☐ 2
Yes, regularly ☐ 3

36. Are you allowed to smoke at home if you wish?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
I do not know ☐ 3

37. Do you have a car of your own? *(apart from the family car.)*

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

38. Does anyone of your close friends have a car of his or her own?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

39. Do you have a motor-bike of your own?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

40. Do any of your close friends own a motor bike?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

41. Are you allowed to drive your parents' car?

Yes, often ☐ 1
Yes, occasionally ☐ 2
No ☐ 3
OR My parents do not have a car ☐ 4

42. How many evenings a week do you usually spend at home?

None ☐ 1
One ☐ 2
Two ☐ 3
Three ☐ 4
Four ☐ 5
Five ☐ 6
Six ☐ 7
Seven ☐ 8

43. How many friends have you that you are together with very often after school?

None ☐ 1
One ☐ 2
Two ☐ 3
Three ☐ 4
Four ☐ 5
Five ☐ 6
Six ☐ 7
Seven or more ☐ 8

44. Who are you together with most?

Mostly with boys ☐ 1
Mostly with girls ☐ 2
Mostly with a group of boys and girls ☐ 3
Mostly with grown-ups ☐ 4
I am mostly alone ☐ 5

45. Who do you like being with most?

My friends at school ☐ 1
My friends away from school ☐ 2
Both about the same ☐ 3

46. How many of your group of friends go to the same school as you?

All of them ☐ 1
Most of them ☐ 2
About half of them ☐ 3
Less than half ☐ 4
None at all ☐ 5

47. Of your group of close friends how many have left high school?

All of them ☐ 1
Most of them ☐ 2
About half of them ☐ 3
Less than half ☐ 4
None at all ☐ 5

---

48. Are there both boys and girls in your group of friends?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

---

49. In your group of friends, how many years' difference in age is there between the youngest and oldest?

About one year ☐ 1
About two years ☐ 2
About three years ☐ 3
About four years ☐ 4

---

50. Among the crowd you go around with, which of these things is most important to be popular in the group? *(You may place a cross in more than one box.)*

Wear the latest fashions ☐
Be good at sport ☐
Be good looking ☐
Be critical of the way school is run and the way adults treat you ☐
Be interested in some hobby ☐
Be religious ☐
Know what is going on in the pop world ☐
Be interested in going out with boys (if you are a girl) or girls (if you are a boy) ☐

50.--*continued*

Be good at school ☐ 9
Be interested in cars and motor-bikes ☐ 10
Be interested in current events and politics ☐ 11
Be interested in surfing ☐ 12

---

51. Are you one of the older or younger members of your group of friends?

I am older ☐ 1
I am about the average age ☐ 2
I am younger ☐ 3

---

52. Have your parents met the members of your group of friends?

Most of them ☐ 1
Some of them ☐ 2
Hardly any of them ☐ 3
None of them ☐ 4

---

53. If you could choose one of the following, what would you prefer to do on a weekend evening? *(Make only one cross.)*

Stay at home with the family ☐ 1
Watch the television ☐ 2
Go to a party with friends ☐ 3
Play sport ☐ 4
Go to a youth centre ☐ 5
Go to the pictures ☐ 6
Work with my hobbies ☐ 7
Read a book ☐ 8
Drive around in a car ☐ 9
Go to a nightclub ☐ 10

54. Many young people have an idol or hero they like to imitate in one way or another. My idol is *(Place one cross only.)*

A sportsman or sportswoman ☐ 1
A clergyman or religious person ☐ 2
A pop artist ☐ 3
A teacher ☐ 4
A film star ☐ 5
A scientist, research worker or the like ☐ 6
A revolutionary ☐ 7
A politician ☐ 8
I have no such idol ☐ 9

55. How often do you and your friends usually meet in the evenings to talk on street corners, milk bars, or at a friend's house?

Never or hardly ever ☐ 1
Once or twice a year ☐ 2
About once a month ☐ 3
About twice a month ☐ 4
About once a week ☐ 5
About twice a week or more ☐ 6

56. When you finish your education what sort of job do you think you will have?

A job like that of a –

doctor, professor, lawyer, accountant, clergy, architect, etc. ☐ 1
business owner, farmer, contractor, etc. ☐ 2
teacher, lecturer, social worker, etc. ☐ 3
insurance salesman, real estate salesman, Government department clerk, bank teller, etc. ☐ 4
electrician, hairdresser, mechanic, baker, etc. ☐ 5
truck driver, labourer, machinist, etc. ☐ 6

57. If it were completely up to you, would you

Stay in school until you finish 5th year? ☐ 1
Leave school before your Leaving? ☐ 2
Do not know ☐ 3

58. How good a student do you want to be in school?

One of the best students in my class ☐ 1
Above the middle of the class ☐ 2
In the middle of my class ☐ 3
Just good enough to get by ☐ 4
I do not care ☐ 5

59. How do you think you are getting on at school?

Very successful ☐ 1
Fairly well ☐ 2
Just average ☐ 3
Fairly badly ☐ 4
Very badly ☐ 5

60. Do you think you could be better at school than you are now?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Do not care ☐ 3

61. If you think about how you got on in Grade 7 primary school, how do you think you are getting on now?

Better now than before ☐ 1
Worse now than before ☐ 2
About the same ☐ 3

62. If you are doing better or worse, why do you think this is so?

....

....

....

....

63. If you could be remembered here at school for one of the things below, which one would you want it to be?

Outstanding student ☐ 1
Star sportswoman or sportsman ☐ 2
Most popular ☐ 3

64. What would you like to get most out of school?

Training for my job ☐ 1
Learn to be a good citizen ☐ 2
A broad education ☐ 3
Knowing how to get along with people ☐ 4
Friends ☐ 5
OR I do not know ☐ 6

65. Are you in training for the job you really want to work at when you finish high school?

Yes ☐ 1
No, I was not good enough to get into the right course ☐ 2
No, the course was full and I had to take something else ☐ 3
No, I did not try to take the right course ☐ 4
There is no training for that job in this school ☐ 5
OR I do not know ☐ 6

66. How much of the things that you are now studying in school deal with the things you really want to know?

A great amount ☐ 1
A moderate amount ☐ 2
Very little ☐ 3

67. How much of what you are learning at school do you think will help you in your job when you leave school?

A great amount ☐ 1
A moderate amount ☐ 2
Very little ☐ 3

68. How much of what you are now learning at school do you think will help you to understand and enjoy life apart from your job when you leave school?

A great amount ☐ 1
A moderate amount ☐ 2
Very little ☐ 3

69. What subjects do you like best in school? *(Check only the ones you like best.)*

Science courses (physics, biology, etc.) ☐
Mathematics courses (geometry, algebra, etc.) ☐
Social Studies (history, economics, etc.) ☐
English (including speech) ☐
Manual arts or home economics ☐
Physical education ☐
Foreign languages ☐
Music ☐
Art ☐
Other *(Write its name down)* ☐

END OF PART ONE

Please close your booklet and indicate to the supervisor that you have finished.

Do not start Part Two.

PART TWO

This section is to be filled in only by students in Years 1 to 3.

70. If you are in an Achievement Certificate class place a cross in the box under the level in which you work for each core subject.

	Advanced	Intermediate	Basic
English	☐	☐	☐
Science	☐	☐	☐
Social Studies	☐	☐	☐

	Advanced	Ordinary	Elementary	Basic
Maths	☐	☐	☐	☐

71. Do you think that Human Relations is a valuable course of study?

Very valuable	☐	1
Fairly valuable	☐	2
Not very valuable	☐	3
Worthless	☐	4
Do not know	☐	5

72. Do you think that Pastoral Care is a valuable course of study?

Very valuable	☐	1
Fairly valuable	☐	2
Not very valuable	☐	3
Worthless	☐	4
Do not know	☐	5

73. Does having to split up into different groups for each subject worry you at school? *(Choose one of the answers.)*

Yes, I do not get to know my classmates and teachers well	☐	1
Yes, I am separated from my friends	☐	2
Yes, it is a nuisance	☐	3
It does not worry me one way or the other	☐	4
No, I enjoy mixing with different groups	☐	5

74. How many times since you began high school have you been moved from one level in a core subject to another level in a core subject? (e.g. From Basic Level to Intermediate Level in either English, Maths, Science or Social Studies.)

Write the number of times in the box ☐

75. Place a cross next to each subject according to how easy or difficult you think it is.

	Very Difficult	Fairly Difficult	Just Right	Fairly Easy	Very Easy
English					
Mathematics					
Science					
Social Studies					

This section is to be filled in only by students in Years 4 and 5.

76. Does the prospect of sitting for Leaving and Matriculation Examinations worry you?

Yes, very much	☐	1
Yes, a little	☐	2
I am not sure	☐	3
No, not at all	☐	4

77. Would you rather more time was spent on other aspects of education?

More time should be spent on preparing for the Leaving ☐ 1

Things are right as they are ☐ 2

More time should be spent on other aspects of education ☐ 3

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78. Do you, do your parents, do your friends or do your teachers think high school students should be allowed to do the following:

(Place a cross under *Yes*, *Uncertain*, or *No* in each of the columns headed YOU, PARENTS, FRIENDS and TEACHERS.)

	YOU			PARENTS			FRIENDS			TEACHERS		
	Yes	Uncertain	No	Yes	Uncertain	No	Yes	Uncertain	No	Yes	Uncertain	No
Driving a car?												
Boys taking girls out?												
Drinking alcohol?												
Girls wearing mini skirts?												
Staying out late at night?												
Girls using make-up?												
Hitch-hiking?												
Smoking cigarettes?												
Kissing?												
Dancing?												
Boys having long hair?												

79. Suppose that you wanted to talk about some personal problem that might have arisen at school. Would you feel happy discussing the problem with:

	Yes	Uncertain	No
Your form teacher, year master or tutor?	☐	☐	☐
The teacher that you like best?	☐	☐	☐
The guidance officer?	☐	☐	☐
The principal, deputy principal, or principal mistress?	☐	☐	☐
Your father?	☐	☐	☐
Your mother?	☐	☐	☐
A brother or sister?	☐	☐	☐
A close friend?	☐	☐	☐
OR There is no one	☐	☐	☐

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80. Listed below are some sentences which may or may not describe **your school**. You must decide whether you agree or disagree with each sentence as a description of what happens at **your school**.

Read each sentence carefully and then, for example, put a cross in the column "Strongly Agree" if you believe strongly that the sentence is a true description. You may put a cross in the column "Strongly Disagree" if you feel strongly that the sentence does not describe your school.

	I Strongly Agree	I Agree	I Am Uncertain	I Disagree	I Strongly Disagree
1. Students are keen to represent their school at sport.					
2. You do not have to work hard to pass tests and examinations here.					
3. Students are always complaining about the way the school is run.					
4. The work that students do in class is much the same from day to day.					
5. Students nearly always agree with whatever the teacher says.					
6. The teachers in this school do not seem to be interested in their job.					
7. For most lessons students are given lists of examples to do out of their text books.					

80.–*continued*	I Strongly Agree	I Agree	I am Uncertain	I Disagree	I Strongly Disagree
8. Teachers usually praise you if you have done a good job.					
9. Students here have a lot of school spirit.					
10. Many teachers go out of their way to help students.					
11. Students are never given a chance to be inventive in this school.					
12. The teachers in this school treat you fairly no matter who you are.					
13. Students are often trying to change school rules which they think are unfair.					
14. Students are sometimes punished without knowing the reason for it.					
15. Teachers seem to enjoy teaching in this school.					
16. The teachers here force you to work as hard as possible.					
17. The teachers here get annoyed if you criticize the school.					
18. All that teachers seem interested in is getting you to pass tests and exams.					
19. Teachers often grumble about the way the school is run.					
20. Teachers are keen to put into practice students' ideas about running the school.					
21. Teachers hardly ever mix with the students.					
22. Discipline in this school is very good.					
23. The best way to do well in this school is to do exactly as you are told.					
24. There are rules for just about everything in this school.					
25. The students here do not seem very interested in school activities.					

81. Listed below are ways in which students in some schools may be punished. Please decide to what extent you would dislike being punished by these ways. For example if you would hate being punished one way put a cross under the column headed "Hate It" next to the particular punishment.

	Hate it	Dislike it Considerably	Dislike it a Little	It does not worry me
1. Physical punishment (e.g. with cane, ruler, or hand.)				
2. Detention (e.g. kept in after school, during recess, during sports period, etc.)				
3. Suspended from school.				
4. Lecture from the teacher in front of the class.				
5. Sent out of the classroom.				
6. Note from the teacher or principal to your parents.				
7. Extra school work (e.g. extra homework, set work during free periods, etc.)				
8. Yard duty (e.g. cleaning up the school yard during recess, etc.)				
9. Private talking to by the teacher, deputy principal or principal mistress.				
10. Made fun of by the teacher with a sarcastic remark.				

82. Now read the same ten ways of punishing students and decide how often you have been punished this year by placing a cross under the appropriate heading.

	Very Often	Quite Often	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
1. Physical punishment (e.g. with cane, ruler, or hand.)					
2. Detention (e.g. kept in after school, during recess, during sports period, etc.)					
3. Suspended from school.					

82.–*continued*	Very Often	Quite Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever	Never
4. Lecture from the teacher in front of the class.					
5. Sent out of the classroom.					
6. Note from the teacher or principal to your parents.					
7. Extra school work (e.g. extra homework, set work during free periods, etc.)					
8. Yard duty (e.g. cleaning up the school yard during recess, etc.)					
9. Private talking to by the teacher, deputy principal or principal mistress.					
10. Made fun of by the teacher with a sarcastic remark.					

83. Have you ever been sent to the deputy principal or principal mistress **this year** to be punished? If so, please write down the number of times in the box. If you have not been sent this year. leave the box blank. ☐

In the part that follows think **ABOUT THE MOST RECENT OCCASION ON** which you were punished by one of the ten methods listed above in questions 80 and 81. (If you have not been punished this year by these means put your cross in the box next to "This does not apply to me".)

84. When was the last time you were punished at school?

Within the last week ☐ 1
About two weeks ago ☐ 2
About three weeks ago ☐ 3
About a month ago ☐ 4
More than a month ago ☐ 5
OR I have not been punished this year ☐ 6

85. By which way were you punished?

Physical punishment (e.g. with cane, ruler, or hand.) ☐ 1
Detention (e.g. kept in after school, during recess, during sports period, etc.) ☐ 2
Suspended from school ☐ 3
Lecture from the teacher in front of the class ☐ 4
Sent out of the classroom ☐ 5
Note from the teacher or principal to your parents ☐ 6
Extra school work (e.g. extra homework, set work during free periods, etc.) ☐ 7

85.—*continued*

Yard duty (e.g. cleaning up the school yard during recess, etc.) ☐ 8

Private talking to by the teacher, deputy principal or principal mistress ☐ 9

Made fun of by the teacher with a sarcastic remark ☐ 10

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 11

86. Was the teacher who caused you to be punished male or female?

Male ☐ 1

Female ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

87. Do you think that you were guilty or not guilty of doing what the teacher said you did?

I was guilty ☐ 1

I was not guilty ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

88. Do you think that the punishment was fair or unfair?

Fair ☐ 1

Unfair ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

89. Were you punished in the way you expected to be for breaking the rule?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

90. Do you think that the punishment helped make you better person?

It did help me ☐ 1

It did not help me ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

91. Have you been punished this year for doing something which you did not know was wrong?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

OR This does not apply to me ☐ 3

92. Overall, is discipline in your school too strict or not strict enough?

Much too strict ☐ 1

Too strict ☐ 2

About right ☐ 3

Too easy-going ☐ 4

Much too easy-going ☐ 5

93. Are your lessons interrupted by students playing up?

Often ☐ 1

Sometimes ☐ 2

Hardly ever ☐ 3

Never ☐ 4

94. Below is a list of items on which some parents have rules for their teenage children, while others don't. Put a cross in the box next to each item that your parents have definite rules for:

Time for being in at night on weekends ☐

Going out with girls (if you are a boy) or boys (if you are a girl) ☐

Time spent watching television ☐

Time spent on homework ☐

Against going around with certain boys ☐

Against going out with certain girls ☐

The pictures I see ☐

The sort of clothes I wear ☐

The way I wear my hair ☐

95. How strict do you think your parents are?

Stricter than most ☐ 1

Average ☐ 2

More lenient than most ☐ 3

96. **Which of the following punishments do you think should be given to a student who is guilty of the following:**

(i) **Vandalism** (e.g. smashing school furniture)

Do nothing ☐ 1

Given a "talking to" ☐ 2

Kept in, or given extra work to do ☐ 3

Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl) ☐ 4

Suspended ☐ 5

(ii) **Often found laughing in class**

Do nothing ☐ 1

Given a "talking to" ☐ 2

Kept in, or given extra work to do ☐ 3

Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl) ☐ 4

Suspended ☐ 5

(iii) **Bullying other students**

Do nothing ☐ 1

Given a "talking to" ☐ 2

Kept in, or given extra work to do ☐ 3

Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl) ☐ 4

Suspended ☐ 5

(iv) **Swearing and then refusing to do what a teacher says**

Do nothing ☐ 1

Given a "talking to" ☐ 2

Kept in, or given extra work to do ☐ 3

96.–(iv)–*continued*

Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl) ☐ 4

Suspended ☐ 5

(v) **Never coming prepared for lessons**

Do nothing ☐ 1

Given a "talking to" ☐ 2

Kept in, or given extra work to do ☐ 3

Caned (if a boy) or severely told off (if a girl) ☐ 4

Suspended ☐ 5

97. If you are unhappy about the way the school is run, are you able to talk about it with a teacher if you wish?

Yes, I am quite free to do this ☐ 1

Yes, but I am discouraged from doing this ☐ 2

No, teachers will not listen to complaints ☐ 3

98. Some schools have a **student council** to represent students. If a school had a student council do you think it would do much to make school a better place to be in?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

I do not know ☐ 3

99. Do you have a student council in your school?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

100. Are you a member of the student council?

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

101. Should the **principal** be allowed to have the final say on who belongs to the student council or who is elected a prefect?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Uncertain ☐ 3

102. Suppose the student council wanted a term social to finish at 11.00 p.m. and the principal wanted the social to finish at 10.30 p.m. Should the **principal's** decision be the final decision?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
Uncertain ☐ 3

103. What do you think of the idea that students from all schools should form a union which would be able to make suggestions about what should go on in schools?

I would be very interested to join ☐ 1
I am not sure ☐ 2
I would not be interested to join ☐ 3

104. Who should make the rules in a school?

The teachers by themselves ☐ 1
The teachers and the students ☐ 2
The students by themselves ☐ 3

105. Do you think that students should be able to decide **themselves** whether or not to:
(You may mark more than one box.)

Wear a school uniform? ☐
Attend a particular lesson or not? ☐
Play in school sporting team? ☐
Smoke at school or not? ☐
Study a particular subject or not? ☐

105.—*continued*

Leave school premises during free periods? ☐
Sit for tests or examinations? ☐
Go on strike? ☐

106. Should **upper school students** have different school rules from **lower school students** regarding, dress, smoking at school, attendance at school, and so on?

Yes ☐ 1
I am uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

107. Recently pamphlets and news sheets (such as "Revolt") which are often critical of the way schools are run were distributed in schools.

(i) Have you read any of them?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

(ii) Do you believe in what they say?

Yes, strongly ☐ 1
Yes, occasionally ☐ 2
I am uncertain ☐ 3
No ☐ 4

(iii) Do you find them interesting?

Yes ☐ 1
I am uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

(iv) Do you think that people should be allowed to give them out freely in schools?

Yes ☐ 1
I am uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

108. Why do you think teacher punish a student who breaks a school rule? *(Choose the most important reason in your opinion and place a cross in one box only.)*

As a warning to other students ☐ 1
To make the student a better person ☐ 2
Because it is no good having rules if you do not have punishments ☐ 3
To keep law and order ☐ 4
Because teachers like punishing students ☐ 5
To teach students right from wrong ☐ 6
Because it makes teachers feel important ☐ 7

109. Below are some pairs of adjectives which may or may not describe some of your teachers. You should read each pair of opposite adjectives and decide which one best describes the type of teacher you have been asked to describe. When you have decided you should place a cross in the box between the pairs of adjectives.

If you were asked to describe whether your teacher was big or small and you thought your teacher was **rather** big you would place your cross as shown below.

big ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ ☐ small

If you thought that your teacher was **very** young then you would place your cross as shown below.

old ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☒ young

If you were **uncertain** and could not make up your mind whether your teacher was old or young you would place your cross in the middle box.

Now think about the teacher with whom you get into trouble most often. *If you never get into trouble with any teacher think about the teacher with whom most other students get into trouble.* Use the pairs of opposite adjectives to describe this teacher. Place **one cross** between each pair of adjectives.

THE TEACHER WITH WHOM I GET INTO TROUBLE MOST OFTEN

strict	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	lenient
fair	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unfair
interested in me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	not interested in me
suspicious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	trusting
prepared	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unprepared
serious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	humorous
reasonable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unreasonable
old fashioned	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	modern
understanding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	not understanding
clever	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	dull
quiet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	noisy
hard-working	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	slack

110. MOST TEACHERS IN MY SCHOOL

strict	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	lenient
fair	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unfair
interested in me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	not interested in me
suspicious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	trusting
prepared	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unprepared
serious	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	humorous
reasonable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unreasonable
old fashioned	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	modern
understanding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	not understanding
clever	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	dull
quiet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	noisy
hard-working	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	slack

111. Listed below are some sentences which may describe how you feel about **learning** and **what goes on in school.** You must decide whether you agree or disagree with each sentence.

(Place one cross in the most appropriate column next to each sentence.)

	I Agree Strongly	I Agree	I Am Uncertain	I Disagree	I Disagree Strongly
1. School is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.					
2. What happens in this school happens no matter what I do. It is like the weather, there is nothing I can do about it.					
3. I definitely dislike school.					
4. There is not much chance that I can make this school a better place in which to learn.					
5. I seem to fail at whatever I do at school.					
6. I try to dress a bit differently from most students at school.					
7. Most of my friends do not like students who try too hard in school.					

111.—*continued*	I Agree Strongly	I Agree	I Am Uncertain	I Disagree	I Disagree Strongly
8. People like me are never going to be successful in life.					
9. There is no need to change schools. They are good enough as they are now.					
10. I think that school helps me to make decisions about problems I will meet in life.					
11. I really enjoy my work at school.					
12. I think there is too much freedom in schools.					
13. The subjects available in this school are extremely valuable to me.					
14. My school work helps me decide what I want to do with my life.					
15. If the majority of students want to do something then the teachers ought to let them do it.					
16. I hate failing a test at school.					
17. If I could change I would be someone different from myself.					
18. Worrying about exams and tests sometimes keeps me from sleeping at night.					
19. Nobody listens to the suggestions I make or the things I say at school.					

112. Most of my teachers think that I am –

A real troublemaker ☐ 1
A bit of a nuisance ☐ 2
An average student ☐ 3
A pretty good student ☐ 4

113. Did you have a reputation as a troublemaker when you first came to this school?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

114. During the last school year, did you ever stay away from school just because you did not want to come?

No ☐ 1
Yes, for one or two days ☐ 2
Yes, for three to six days ☐ 3
Yes, for seven to fifteen days ☐ 4
Yes, for sixteen or more days ☐ 5

115. Which of these things would be hardest for you to take – your parents' disapproval, your teacher's disapproval, your friend's disapproval?

Parents' disapproval ☐ 1
Teacher's disapproval ☐ 2
Friend's disapproval ☐ 3

116. How popular are you and your friends with other students in the school?

Among the most popular ☐ 1
About average ☐ 2
Not very popular ☐ 3

117. How bright do you think you are in comparison with other students in your year level?

Among the brightest ☐ 1
Above average ☐ 2
Average ☐ 3
Below average ☐ 4
Among the lowest ☐ 5

118. Do you feel that you can get to see a guidance officer or school counsellor when you want to or need to?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2
We have no guidance officer ☐ 3

119. How many times have you talked to a guidance officer or school counsellor this year?

Never ☐ 1
Once ☐ 2
Two or three times ☐ 3
Four or five times ☐ 4
Six or more times ☐ 5
We had no guidance officer ☐ 6

120. Would you prefer more of the formal classroom teaching to be replaced by private study periods?

Yes ☐ 1
I am uncertain ☐ 2
No ☐ 3

121. Do you find your school work –

Too easy? ☐ 1
About right? ☐ 2
Too difficult? ☐ 3

122. Do you find your school work –

Interesting? ☐ 1
Neither interesting nor disinteresting? ☐ 2
Boring? ☐ 3

123. Suppose you were able to change your school in any way that you liked. What would be the first and most important change that you would make? *(Briefly write down what you would do. If you would not change anything leave the space blank.)*

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED IN THIS REPORT

Achievement Certificate. A certificate awarded to students by the Board of Secondary Education normally at the end of third year.

Advanced (student). A student in the top 25 per cent of the student population with respect to achievement in a core subject.

affective (objectives of education). Objectives which describe changes in interests, attitudes and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

Basic (student). A student in the lowest 25 per cent of the student population with respect to achievement in a core subject.

behavioural (objectives). Objectives stated in terms of behaviour which can be observed and described.

co-education. The practice by which boys and girls attend the same school.

cognitive (objectives of education). Those objectives which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills.

commercial course. A course or sequence of courses intended to prepare students for entry into the commercial world in the secretarial field.

comprehensive secondary school. A large secondary school which enrols both male and female students from all sections of the community and provides a wide range of courses to meet a variety of needs.

compulsory education age. All children in Western Australia are obliged to attend school from the beginning of the school year in the calendar year in which they attain the age of six years until the end of the school year in the calendar year in which they attain the age of fifteen years.

co-operative teaching. Teachers working as a team to plan and organize the teaching of a subject.

core subjects. English, mathematics, science and social studies.

cross-setting. The organizational procedure of time-tabling two or more classes for the same subject at the same time so that class groupings may be formed on the basis of ability in the particular subject.

Department. The Education Department of Western Australia.

detention. The act of confining or detaining the student after school hours for a limited period of time as a punishment.

deviant behaviour. Behaviour which varies markedly from what is considered by most people to be "normal" or "proper".

Director-General. The Director-General of Education in Western Australia.

driver education. An educational programme designed to instil skills and attitudes relating to the correct handling of a motor vehicle.

external examinations. Examinations conducted by an authority external to the school attended by the student. For example, the Leaving examination conducted by the Public Examinations Board.

general education. Education directed towards providing students with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for effective participation in society. Contrast with vocational education.

Government schools. Schools in Western Australia organized, staffed, financed and operated by the Education Department of Western Australia. They are non-selective, co-educational, comprehensive district schools.

Guidance Branch. Guidance and Special Education Branch of the Education Department of Western Australia.

Intermediate (student). A student in the middle 50 per cent of the student population with respect to achievement in each of the core subjects of English, science and social studies. In mathematics only, courses are offered at four levels—Advanced, Ordinary, Elementary and Basic.

Junior (examination). An external examination conducted by the Public Examinations Board for students at the end of third year. This examination will be available for only a few students in 1973, having now been replaced by the Achievement Certificate assessment scheme.

junior high school. A primary school which has an average daily attendance of over 150 pupils including over 25 students in the first, second and third years of secondary courses, and has been declared a junior high school by the Director-General.

Leaving (examination). An external examination conducted by the Public Examinations Board and taken by most students at the end of fifth year.

lower school. The students in first, second and third years of a secondary school in Western Australia.

matriculation. The formal process, completed by registration, of being admitted as a student to the rights and privileges of membership in a university.

Minister for Education—Minister. The Minister for Education in the Government of Western Australia.

moderators. Persons appointed by a certifying authority to visit and observe or otherwise satisfy themselves that certain criteria are met by schools.

non-Government school. An approved school organized, staffed, financed and operated by a body other than the Education Department of Western Australia.

optional subject. A non-compulsory subject offered to second and third year students in Western Australian secondary schools. A normal programme for a student includes five optional units selected from those offered by the school, though in some cases a student may study up to nine optional units totalling 18 periods each week.

outdoor education. An optional course in the Achievement Certificate which aims at providing early training in lifelong outdoor pursuits such as camping, bushwalking, orienteering, canoeing, swimming, etc.

Parents and Citizens' Association. The duly constituted organization of parents or guardians of children attending any Government school, or group of schools, together with other persons being over the age of 18 years who are interested in the welfare of such schools and work in co-operation with the school to provide extra facilities and amenities for the school.

practice teaching/teaching practice. That part of pre-service training in which a student teacher works in a school classroom under the supervision of an experienced teacher. This period may include observation and participation as well as actual teaching.

pre-vocational course. An exploratory workshop course under simulated factory conditions preceding vocational industrial education.

Progressive Teachers' Association. An association of teachers in Western Australia who believe that a programme of reform of education involving the Teachers' Charter, size of schools, teacher/pupil relationships, parent involvement, recognition of student bodies and rights, the abolition of corporal punishment and experiment in community schools will improve the standard of education in Western Australia.

Public Examinations Board. A board constituted by the University of Western Australia to conduct the Junior and Leaving Certificate Examinations in this State.

school administrators. The personnel directly concerned with the administration of a school. The term includes principal, deputy principal and principal mistress.

school rules. A set of regulations or rules, particular to a school, governing the behaviour of students within the school. These rules may be written or unwritten.

secondary school. A high school or senior high school.

secondary student. A student following a secondary school course in either a secondary or primary school.

senior high school. A secondary school that has students in the first, second, third, fourth and fifth years of a secondary course.

senior master. The first advertised promotional position in the secondary service. The senior master is in charge of the organization and administration of a subject field.

streaming (students). The grouping of students on the basis of general ability for instruction in all or most subject areas.

student council. An organized body of students elected or appointed as representatives of students to participate in the running of some aspects of school life.

student rights. Entitlements. Liberties. Behaviours which either by law or by tradition cannot be denied to a student by school or other authorities. The term is often used loosely to refer to desires or opinions, for example, that a certain change in educational policy or practice should be effected.

student/teacher contacts. The number of different teachers who teach any one student.

student/teacher ratio. A numerical expression of the number of students per teacher calculated by dividing the total number of students by the total number of teachers in the schools. The total number of teachers includes principals, principal mistresses and deputy principals. This ratio is not to be confused with the size of class groups for individual subjects.

syllabus. A condensed outline or statement of the main points of a course of study including objectives, teaching methods, selection and organization of content and evaluation techniques.

teacher. A teacher is defined in the Educaton Act as "any person forming part of the educational staff of a school".

teacher/parent relationships. The professional relationship between teacher and parents which enables the school and the home to work together in the best interests of the student.

teacher/student contacts. The number of different students taught by any one teacher.

teacher/student relationships. The professional relationship between teachers and students which enables a work rapport to be established.

Teachers' Tribunal. The Government School Teachers' Tribunal established under the provisions of section 37 of the Education Act.

Teachers' Union. The State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia.

team teaching. Teachers working as a team. A "leader" presents his material to a large number of students in the presence of a number of other teachers. In turn these teachers pursue the material offered in further tutorials or seminars with their own classes.

term. A term is one-third of a school year: First Term—February to May; Second Term—May to August; Third Term—August to December.

trade course (technical course). A course consisting of practical work and instruction in technical subjects preparing students for a non-professional or semi-professional occupation.

unit (course of study). A term used in relation to Achievement Certificate courses in Western Australian secondary schools to refer to the portion of a subject syllabus which an average student is expected to complete in one school year. In the primary school Unit Progress Plan a unit is a term's work for the average student.

unit-progress. A means of providing differentiated instruction whereby each student completes one unit of work satisfactorily before progressing to the next.

upper school. The students in fourth and fifth year in a secondary school.

vocational (education). Those phases of the educational programme which prepare the learner for entrance to a particular chosen vocation.

year level. The organizational divisions of the school normally corresponding with the length of time a student has been at secondary school. A student in his first year at secondary school is in first year whereas a student who is in his fourth year of secondary schooling is usually in fourth year.

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